

# The Nation

VOL. XLVII.—NO. 1211.

THURSDAY, SEPTEMBER 13, 1888.

PRICE 15 CENTS.

## WORKS ON PRESENT ISSUES.

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# The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, SEPTEMBER 13, 1888.

## The Week.

WE can recall no Presidential campaign since slavery was abolished that has been marked by such abnegations of manhood in the higher counsels of the nation as the present. The passage of the anti Chinese bill in the Senate with only three dissenting votes, after a message had been received from the President saying that the treaty had not been rejected by the Chinese Government, but only held for further consideration, caps the climax. When this message was received, Mr. Stewart of Nevada wanted to know if we were going to put up with an affront like that. Held for consideration! Just Heaven! was such insolence ever heard of? Here was a treaty that had been in the hands of the Chinese authorities a whole week, perhaps even ten days. Not ratified yet? Let us teach these red dragons a lesson in punctuality. There is a commercial treaty lying around loose in Washington—a treaty with Mexico, we believe—that has been held for consideration about four years, and is not yet finally acted upon. Yet we are going to teach the world that treaties are made to be approved or disapproved at the drop of the hat. And the whole Senate, except a minority too small to be counted, voted with Stewart of Nevada. The Senator who sinned most against the light was Mr. Dawes of Massachusetts, the friend of the red man. The Senator who showed most manliness was Mr. Gorman of Maryland—a wonderful see-saw indeed. We owe it to Mr. Gorman that there is still a chance to save some remnant of self-respect out of this fearful degradation.

The Republicans have carried Maine by about the same majority as they had in 1884. Mr. Blaine telegraphs that "it is not simply a great victory, it is almost a political revolution." The *Tribune* says, "Never was there a more certain harbinger of victory all along the line in November." Something very like this happened four years ago, as the following parallel from the *Tribune's* editorial columns of then and now will show:

*TRIBUNE, SEPT. 11, 1884.*  
The news from Maine grows better and better. The Republicans of that State have achieved what Mr. Blaine has justly called "an unparalleled triumph." . . . Well done, Maine! The defeat of Cleveland is very large in what she accomplished on Monday.

*TRIBUNE, SEPT. 11, 1888.*  
The verdict of Maine is a magnificent response to the victories in Vermont, Oregon, and Rhode Island. . . . Free trade and trucking to Canadian interests have found no favor in Maine, whose right to the motto "Dirigo" can no longer be challenged. Never was there a more certain harbinger of victory all along the line in November.

We are free to say that we think the *Tribune's* interpretation of the returns is as nearly accurate now as it was four years ago. To our mind the figures simply show that party lines in Maine remain substantially as

they were in the last Presidential campaign. This may rejoice the Republicans, and it may not. It may show several things, but the fact which it discloses most plainly is that there is no "cyclone of fear" among the Democratic voters; and we have the authority of so eminent a Republican leader as Mr. Chauncey M. Depew that unless there be such a cyclone, there will be small chance of Republican success in November.

Gen. Harrison's letter of acceptance, as the effort of a man in middle life to deal with a complicated subject to which he has never given any attention, and which is forced on his consideration by circumstances, deserves respectful treatment. It is, however, difficult to criticize it at all without seeming to be uncivil, because any criticism of it will seem rather an examination of Gen. Harrison's mental equipment than of his political economy. Political economy he can not be said to have. His views about the tariff are the commonplaces which a busy lawyer has probably picked up in conversation or inherited. It is clear enough that he has not studied the question at all. The probabilities seem to be that his mind is as unfitted for such study as that of some men is for the study of mathematics. For instance, what most troubles him in the Mills bill is not "the length of the step" which he thinks this bill makes, but "the direction of it." That is, he does not see what great harm it will do *per se*, but what alarms him is, that he thinks it will lead to a "placing of the tariff laws on a purely revenue basis," or "practical free trade—free trade in the English sense." But it must be apparent, even to a child, that if the Mills bill produces the dreadful effects on trade and industry which its opponents say it will, no other step in the direction of free trade will ever be made. The country will be satisfied with the result of the experiment. The old duties will be restored, and the revenue reformers and "the British free traders" brought to confusion. So that it is the length of the step, and not the direction, which is really the important thing.

Behind this little logical slip, there is evidently that feeling about the sacredness of the tariff as a valuable national possession, rather than as a form of taxation, which one meets with all over the country among persons who have not given much attention to economical questions—the feeling that the tariff is—like the Gospel, or like education, or like chastisement by a loving parent—something good for people whether they like it or not, or want it or not. To Gen. Harrison, apparently, a country which lowered its tariff, or got rid of it, would be like a country which had relapsed into heathenism, or had plunged into debauchery through the teachings of wicked men. He reproves, for instance, "those who teach that the import duty on foreign goods sold in our

market is paid by the consumer," not so much because what they say is not true, as because "it discredits in the minds of others our system of levying duties on competing foreign products." In other words, it strikes him as one of "Bob" Ingersoll's lectures, or derision of the Scriptures, strikes a pious and moral man. This state of mind is interesting, but it is psychologically rather than economically interesting. Gen. Harrison's refusal to "stop to refute this theory as to the effect of our tariff duties," on the ground that those who advance it "are students of maxims rather than of markets," we must treat with silent respect. We think he is quite right in his reserve. A letter of acceptance is hardly the place for such a discussion, and if it were, Gen. Harrison could not carry the controversy very far without a loss of dignity, because the "students of maxims" are tough customers, and he would get but little glory out of a tussle with them.

A very neat exposure of Mr. Blaine's habitual charlatanism is made by the *Boston Herald*. In his recent speech before the citizens of Eastport, Maine, Mr. Blaine congratulated them on their wonderful recuperative energy, as displayed in building anew their town after the great fire a few years ago, and informed them that they could not have done this but for the assistance which they received from the protective tariff. Having done this, says the *Herald*, Mr. Blaine proceeded to hold up for their execration the Mills bill, showing them how it invited Canadians to bring in without duty every form of timber, hewn and sawed and squared and sided. The *Herald* reminds Mr. Blaine that in the record of the Forty-ninth Congress he will find a petition, signed by the Selectmen of Eastport, and dated immediately after the fire, asking Congress to come to the relief of the stricken town, and permit all building materials to be brought in free of duty in order that the work of rebuilding might be done without the burden of protective duties. This petition was presented to Congress by that roaring protectionist, Capt. Boutelle, who accompanied it with a bill granting what the petition asked. Boutelle made a speech in its favor, in the course of which he called attention to the fact that the bill only followed the precedent which had been established when another Maine town, Portland, had been a sufferer by a great fire in 1866.

There are a great many people in a muddled-headed condition about the tariff, owing to the necessity of maintaining for campaign purposes that it enables the manufacturer both to pay high wages and to charge low prices. There is probably nobody who is more muddled on the whole question than Senator Hoar. He has just been doing some "voicing" in the *New York Tribune*, in which he on Monday delivered himself of the following sapient opinion:

"Neither is it true that the tariff increases the burden upon the necessities of life to the working people. Not more than 15 or 20 per cent. of all the articles which a well-to-do workingman requires for use in his family consists of articles on which there is any duty at all, and of a large part of that per cent. the price of the article is as cheap in this country as it is abroad, so that the tariff does not increase it at all, while the wages of the workingmen in consequence of the tariff are from 40 to 100 per cent. higher.

"The working people of America will easily be made to see these things—indeed, they see them now—and the President's letter will be regarded by them as a feeble attempt to mislead them."

Now, if 80 per cent. of the articles consumed by the bulk of the population are not touched by the tariff, and the cost of the remaining 20 per cent. is not raised by the tariff, how in the name of common sense does the tariff enable the manufacturer to put up the wages of workingmen in this country from 40 to 100 per cent. over those paid to workingmen abroad? The tariff is not an unseen influence, like spiritual regeneration, or a tonic, like acid phosphates, to be taken internally. It does a manufacturer good by enabling him to get higher prices for his wares, and his own story is that, because he gets higher prices for his wares, he is enabled to pay higher wages. But if Senator Hoar be right, where do the higher wages come from? Not from the price, because that is about the same here as abroad. Is it possible that we are in the presence of a miracle? Were these tariff verses recited at the Tariff Convention in this city four years ago really a hymn?

"Protection, oh Protection, the joyful sound proclaim"

Till each remotest nation has heard the Tariff's name!"

An amusing but very interesting explanation is offered by a United States Senator, of the reason why the Senate does not produce its tariff bill. It is neither more nor less than the very reasonable fear that, when the bill saw the light, the President would send in a message recommending its passage, for the relief of the Treasury and of commerce and industry. This, coming on top of the retaliation message, would of course be a terrible blow, and would make the position of the Republican party in the canvass even more ridiculous than it is. We say the fear is a reasonable one, because, the passage of the Mills bill being apparently impossible this session, the President would probably jump at any chance that offered of keeping down the surplus, even if the measure did not in all respects meet his views, and trust to getting something better next year, when the path of revision had once been fairly entered on. The more one thinks of it, the more extraordinary it seems that the Republicans in Congress did not in the beginning concoct a revision bill of their own, and run it in opposition to the Mills bill. Their failure to see the need of this is in fact one of the best omens of the crisis. It looks as if Providence had, after much forbearance, decided on their destruction.

James P. Foster, President of the Republican League of the United States, is still after "fat," and, judging by the breathless

character of his latest appeal, the chase is getting desperate. He declares that if he can only get "fat" enough, he will show that the League is the "greatest engine of modern political warfare." If he will allow us to differ with him, we will venture the opinion that he has already made it such an engine by the production of his "Fat" circular alone. There is no such campaign document in existence as that is, and none which has had such a circulation, especially by the enemy. Foster's present scheme is for \$1 subscriptions, and he offers the following powerful inducements:

"Every subscriber to this fund will receive an elegant souvenir which will be worth the money he has given, and the League will allow you to retain for the use of your club 25 per cent. of all the subscriptions you may receive.

"To every club which secures \$200 before the 25th day of September the League will present an elegant silk banner, with pole, cords, etc., containing the official emblem of the League; an elegant affair which any club may be proud to possess."

Why not offer a Waterbury watch, or an Unabridged Dictionary, or a Library of Universal Knowledge in return for one-dollar subscriptions? What will be left of the dollar after the 25 per cent. reduction has been made and the "elegant souvenir" and "elegant silk banner with poles, cord, etc.," have been paid for?

We repeat that we think a good electoral law ought to make the circulation of fraudulent or forged quotations or letters, with the view of influencing votes thereby, a criminal offence. Under the law of this State at present, if Mr. H. K. Thurber were to "falsely sign the name of the officer of a corporation or of any other person to a letter, message, or other paper," or "utter or circulate such a letter, message, or other paper, knowing that the same has been so falsely signed," with "the intent of affecting the market price of the public funds of this State or any State," or "the market price of any merchandise or commodity whatever"—say, groceries—he would expose himself to a fine of \$5,000 or imprisonment in the penitentiary for not more than three years (N. Y. Penal Code, sec. 435). If such were the intent of the leaflet he has been circulating, he would get three years for his *Times* forgery, and be a ruined and disgraced man. But because the intent of his leaflet is not to run up the price of groceries, or of stocks and bonds, but simply to affect the action of his countrymen on a vast question of government, involving hundreds of millions of dollars, he has been allowed to go on his way and snap his fingers at the police.

The Republican outlook in Minnesota is threatening, to say the least. The farmers of the State made a formal appeal to the Republican Convention, which met last week, to adopt the following as the tariff plank of the platform:

"We protest against the doctrine of high protection, and demand a judicious and radical reduction of the present tariff. We are opposed to free whiskey and tobacco while we are compelled to pay high taxes on sugar and lumber."

This request was not granted, but instead a

platform was adopted which approved the national Republican platform in one part and repudiated it in another, and a candidate for Governor was nominated who is especially obnoxious to the farming and other industrial interests of the State. Two newspapers representing these interests have bolted from the ticket, and announce their intention to support the Democratic candidate. What the ultimate result will be is, of course, uncertain. The Democrats claim that it gives them a good prospect of carrying the State, but the Republicans deny this. A most humiliating aspect of the situation is the attitude of the leading Republican newspaper of the State, the *St. Paul Pioneer-Press*. It has for years been an able advocate of tariff reform, but since the Chicago Convention it has been trying to make its readers believe that there is nothing inconsistent between its former teachings and the declarations of that platform.

By his manly and straightforward stand on the high-license question, Warner Miller is making it easy for independent voters to support him. His speech at Little Valley on Saturday was a much more explicit and courageous utterance on this point than the Republican platform's. He refused to quibble over the terms tax or license, declaring himself squarely in favor of high license, and adding: "In the coming contest I do not hesitate to say that I prefer to be beaten upon that question rather than succeed by subterfuge and double-dealing." He went on to say that the liquor interests of the State had openly and formally taken the opposite ground, and had forced the issue between themselves and the rest of the people. Their undisguised championship of Gov. Hill, and his undisguised willingness to do their bidding, have also helped to make this question the leading one of the campaign. Mr. Miller is a shrewd politician as well as an honest man. He wisely puts his tariff views out of the contest, for as Governor he would have nothing to do with that question. He stands before the people of this State as the pledged defender of orderly and honest government, and as such is the exact opposite of Gov. Hill. On that issue, every reputable voter in the State, of every party and of no party, ought to have no difficulty in deciding as to which of the two men shall have his vote.

While there is a great deal of force in the Republican taunt that no self-respecting voter can take much pleasure in supporting a party which is capable of nominating a man like "Dave" Hill for Governor, still it should be borne in mind that the Republican party has been guilty of a like offence of even larger proportions. Bad as Hill's nomination will be as a revelation of party depravity, it will not be so bad as was Blaine's nomination for the Presidency by the Republican party. We venture to hope, also, that Hill's candidacy will not involve the humiliating spectacle which Blaine's did of men of high character and correct principles taking



the stump, defending his dishonesty, and declaring that they could see nothing in his career of lying and jobbery which unfitted him for public office. Hill belongs to the same variety of statesman as Blaine, and his re-nomination for office will be, as Blaine's nomination was, only a fresh evidence that the working machinery of political parties, if left to itself without fear of consequences, pays small heed to moral qualifications in candidates. The only restraint, in other words, which the orderly and respectable elements in American politics can exert upon the machine-workers in either party is by uniting against every bad candidate and making his election impossible.

The *World* says that Gov. Hill's faults have been "grossly exaggerated." Well, which faults? It is not possible to have exaggerated his main fault of taking money from a contractor to pay his campaign notes. There are certain "faults" one cannot "exaggerate," and this is one of them. When a Governor of a great State connives at gross jobbery in order to make \$10,000, one cannot say in palliation, as one may say of the theft of a watch, that he did it because he was hungry, or out of work, or had a sick wife, or was led astray by evil companions. Men who are elected Governors of States are supposed to have risen out of the atmosphere in which criminals plead necessity or temptation in extenuation. We are not arguing that Mr. Hill ought to go to jail, or be fined, or impeached, or subjected to any sort of penalty. We simply say that to confer on him a second time the great honor of the Governorship would be a defiance of the morality of the community such as no party in this country has ever perpetrated, except the Republican party when it nominated James G. Blaine for the Presidency. There is always something very comic in the notion that you are persecuting a man if you do not want him raised to the highest place in the State or nation.

The way in which men like Senator Blackburn go about denouncing the President's civil-service-reform policy is a striking illustration of the difficulties the President has had to contend with in carrying it out. A great many prominent Democratic politicians, like a great many prominent Republican politicians, feel about it just as Senator Blackburn does, and work against it privately, but do not, like Senator Blackburn, blurt out their feelings in public places. They are, however, like Senator Blackburn, generally elderly men, who will never get reconciled to anything but the spoils system, and will die mourning over its decline. Its complete expulsion from the public service need only be looked for from the generation which has grown up since the war. The older men like the system in which they were bred, and will not admit, even to themselves, that conditions which favored their own rise into power or eminence can really be bad.

In considering our relations with Canada, it should be borne in mind that that country is just as badly bestridden and bedevilled with the doctrine of "protection to home industry" as we are. One of the outcroppings of this sentiment, and one of the deft imitations of our own practice, has lately been disclosed in an executive order requiring the collection of duties on boxes and other coverings in which green fruit is shipped to Canada. Green fruit, plants, and bulbs were made free between the two countries by reciprocal legislation last year, and for a time things went well. But lately an order has been issued by the Canadian authorities to their customs officers to collect duties on the boxes, bags, or other coverings, just as we, after the Treaty of Washington went in force, collected duties on lobster cans, although the lobsters were admitted free of duty. It is reported that the British Minister at Washington has remonstrated with the Canadian Government against this evasion. Another bit of protectionism is the rebate of tolls allowed to Canadian vessels passing through the Welland Canal, to which President Cleveland called attention in his recent message. This is intended to protect Montreal grain-shippers. There is no excuse for this discrimination. It is a clear violation of the treaty, and it should either be stopped or the same medicine should be offered to Canada that she offers to us.

The accounts—apparently authentic—which come from Germany, touching the manners and customs of the young Emperor, are undoubtedly enough to make sober-minded people uneasy. He started the other day, at four in the morning, with an aide-de-camp, to several of the cavalry barracks in the neighborhood of Berlin, had "boots and saddles" sounded, and ordered the regiments to march promptly to a point seven miles outside the city, to which he went at full gallop and waited for them, watch in hand. His little sons, too, live in uniform, with high boots, sabres, and spurs, and their plays consist of the attack and defence of little redoubts, and military exercises under the superintendence of two or three gendarmes. These things somewhat resemble the eccentricities of the father of the Great Frederick, and are probably intended to show that the new ruler is a true Hohenzollern, but they seem sadly out of place in an industrial age, and naturally set people asking, What next? or rather, What will happen after Bismarck goes? The great preponderance given to the sovereign in the Prussian Constitution works well as long as the sovereign is a capable and prudent man, surrounded by wise counsellors, but the capable and prudent sovereigns and the wise counsellors die, and the hare-brained young fellows get their innings, and sometimes make an awful mess of it. In earlier days, when the state was made up of farmers, priests, and soldiers, and credit, and commerce, and manufactures counted for little, the brilliant young military monarchs were mischievous enough, heaven knows, but harmless compared to what they might be now if let loose among

the infinite complications of modern society. The great trouble Austria had to contend with between 1848 and 1866 was, as an Austrian statesman said, that she had a "young and chivalrous Emperor," who ran on for twenty years before he had sense hammered into him, and became a sober-minded, peaceable constitutional monarch; but it took Sadowa as well as Magenta and Solferino to do it.

The British Government has just concluded a remarkable experiment in the art of naval warfare, by means of manoeuvres between two divisions of the fleet, one supposed to be "the enemy" which the military men are always so dreadfully afraid of, and the other the defender of the coast. The enemy was blockaded in an Irish port, but managed to escape, and then either burned the shipping or levied contributions on all the leading ports of the kingdom, including Liverpool. In fact, if the result showed anything, it showed that it would be impossible, with any force the kingdom could muster, to prevent an active and enterprising squadron from inflicting enormous damage all along the coasts. It has brought home to the British public more clearly than ever before the very unpleasant truth that pitched battles between great fleets will be by no means the prominent or important feature of the next great naval war; that the worst of it, by far, will be the devastation wrought by cruisers; and that the strongest maritime power in our day is really the power which has least property about, and fewest unprotected seaports.

The resolution of the English Trades Union Congress in favor of "the nationalization of land" doubtless does not mean much, but it is a natural outcome of what are called the Allotment Acts of recent years, through which local authorities are empowered under certain conditions to appropriate land in small lots to be let to workingmen—to say nothing of the very exceptional treatment of the Irish land question. The expropriation of individual owners for the benefit of other people, and the interference of the Legislature in the contracts between landlord and tenant, are both impressive acknowledgments that land is a very peculiar kind of property, with which the State may take peculiar liberties, and it is not surprising that the workingmen have taken the lesson to heart, and think that there is something more to be got out of it. But what gives the land question its importance, both in England and Ireland, is the fact that it has until now been a monopoly in the hands of a small number of owners, who were able to exact rent for its use. Rent is, however, rapidly disappearing under the competition of the remoter parts of the globe, and when it has gone, the land will no longer dazzle workingmen or anybody else in England. What makes them think its nationalization would be a good thing is the fact that they have seen the land hitherto supporting in great luxury and leisure a large class besides the cultivators. But this class is gradually disappearing.



## MR. CLEVELAND'S LETTER OF ACCEPTANCE.

THE Republican newspapers have been long anxious to see Mr. Cleveland's letter accepting his renomination, and have latterly been inclined to chide him for delay in writing it. They now have it in full, and there yet remain two months in which to analyze it. We venture to predict that they will not like it. We suspect that they could have endured a still greater delay in the production of it. No campaign document of the year will make so strong an impression, for although the arguments presented do not differ in any marked way from those of other debaters on the same side, they are stated in a very felicitous manner for reaching the ear of the common people, and the rostrum from which they are delivered is, of course, the most commanding of all. Mr. Cleveland's statement of the issue presented by the free-whiskey clause of the Republican platform is perfectly fair, and his comment upon it appeals powerfully to the common sense of the people.

"The implication," he says, "contained in this party declaration, that desperate measures are justified or necessary to save from destruction or surrender what is termed our protective system, should confuse no one. The existence of such a system is *entirely consistent with the regulation of the extent to which it should be applied* and the correction of its abuses. Of course, in a country as great as ours, with such a wonderful variety of interests, often leading in entirely different directions, it is difficult if not impossible to settle upon a perfect tariff plan. But in accomplishing the reform we have entered upon, the necessity of which is so obvious, I believe we should not be content with a reduction of revenue involving the prohibition of importations and the removal of the internal tax upon whiskey."

Here is the issue of the campaign in a nutshell. We have a protective system. No party, nobody, considers it perfect. The Republican party in 1884 promised to revise it and correct its inequalities. But after neglecting this duty for years, and after preventing anybody else from doing it, the party has taken the ground that the existing tariff is a sacred thing, and that its protective features cannot be amended at all except in the way of increasing the taxes. The duties on particular articles may vary all the way from 10 to 100 per cent., but these inequalities can only be corrected by lifting the lower ones to the level of the higher—never by reducing the higher in any degree whatever. Rather than reduce any such tax, let tobacco and whiskey be made free.

This position is so absurd, so utterly nonsensical, that it needs only the touch which the President gives it to show us what it really is. It is like one of those ancient mummies that have the semblance of the human form till somebody breaks the crust and lets in the air, when the whole thing collapses and turns to dust. The President says that the existence of the protective system is entirely consistent with steps for its adjustment to the present exigency of a surplus revenue. "Nothing of the kind," says the Chicago platform. "The existence of a protective system is con-

sistent only with increased rates of duty and a repeal of the whiskey tax."

There are some situations in politics which upset the gravity of impartial witnesses, and this is one of them. It is impossible to add anything to its comic features. It is possible only to point out the incongruity of things in a few plain words, and leave the rest to the common sense of plain people. This is what the President has done in his letter of acceptance. More than this it would have been useless to attempt. "It is a condition and not a theory that confronts us," he said in his message to Congress. How the Republican party would meet this condition is stated in the Chicago platform. "We would meet it," say the Republicans, "when it becomes flagrant and unbearable, by adding to the taxes on the necessities of life when imported from abroad, and by repealing those on intoxicating drinks when produced in our own distilleries." There is the cap-sheaf of your protective system. There is its crown of glory. Mr. Cleveland holds up this crown of glory as a spectacle for mankind, and says that he is content to abide by the judgment of the American people upon the principles of his message, as contrasted with those of the advocates of dearer food and clothing and cheaper drinks.

## TARIFF REFORM A MORAL ISSUE.

WITH one or two exceptions, the religious newspapers are pretty consistently refraining from taking any part in the canvass. This is due, they tell us, not to the disastrous nature of their fooling with political questions four years ago, but to their clear conviction that there is no moral issue involved in the coming election. In 1884, they say, there was such an issue—the personal character of the candidates. Then they felt called upon to speak out. But now that it is a mere question of economic policy, a choice between opposing theories of the tariff, they think there is no reason for their impairing their religious influence by assuming a partisan position.

Far be it from us to quarrel with this conclusion. There are the best of reasons why the religious press, as such, should abstain from partisan activity. But we cannot at all admit that the reason offered is one of them. It is an altogether antiquated and inadequate conception of morality that is unable to see that the pending issue of tariff reform is, in large part, a moral issue. To deny that it is, smacks of what may be called the lurid school of moralists—we mean the men who feel an appeal to their moral instincts only when it is a clear case of heaven against hell. For them to be able to recognize right and wrong on the two sides of a battle, it must be an Armageddon. Right must be enveloped in a heavenly halo, or they do not know it, and wrong must be wrapped in sulphurous gloom, or they will not be sure of it. This is very largely, we suppose, the attitude of the Prohibitionists. They are men who, so to speak, pine for a moral issue—and they want it to be one that they can see a mile away. Since

the Republican party has ceased to stir their enthusiasm, as it did in the days when it stood for human liberty, they have been casting about for a new cause to awaken their passionate devotion, and they have apparently found it. They regard it as the height of absurdity to talk about a question of custom-house regulations, as they call it, being a question largely moral.

Yet tariff reform is a moral issue of a most positive and commanding sort. We may even say that it is so on whichever side of the question a man takes his position—provided he takes it honestly; for every honest and intelligent voter, next November, will believe that he is voting for national prosperity. But national prosperity means national improvement in morals. No teaching of scientific ethics is more clear than just this intimate connection between the physical condition and the moral state. Thus it has been shown, for example, that suicide varies with the food supply. The introduction of gas in the streets of London was followed by an immediate decrease in public crime. We have to distinguish here between morals and religiosity. In times of national distress the churches are more resorted to, it is true, than in periods of prosperity. From this fact it has been inferred that a commercial panic, like that of 1857, is a great quickener of morality because it is of church attendance. But this is to overlook the immense increase of crime, which is always the other pole of the social movement originated by public calamity, and also to be blind to the true influence of a series of prosperous years in raising the standard of comfort and of intelligence, in ameliorating manners and putting a premium upon good habits. The surest way of hitting the moral is to aim at the physical, and the citizen who is really persuaded that the prosperity of the country is to hinge, very largely, upon the result of the voting two months from now, may be certain that the morals of the people will be affected in the most important ways.

In fact, if we admit that the reasoning of the advocates of tariff reform is sound, we cannot well deny that they have ground for entering into the contest with the loftiest moral enthusiasm. It is conducive to morality to have public measures rightly named and clearly understood by the people. A part of the work of tariff-reformers, in the present campaign, consists in exposing hypocrisy and deception. They are helping to fix the label "favoritism," "class legislation," "bounty system," on the thing that has falsely been called "protection." They stand for economy in national administration, and economy is a public virtue and a source of private morality. They are striving to restore our true political ideal of equality before the law, instead of the present system of legislation for the benefit of the few at the expense of the many. They are working to prevent, in the most direct way possible, the creation of permanent class distinctions in this country, and of persistent social antagonisms. They labor for simpler and directer political

methods, for the better distribution of wealth, for a more steadily expansive business success, and for a more constant employment and contentment of laboring men. And it is no wonder that they feel all their moral earnestness enlisted in the struggle to secure such worthy ends, since they are well assured that that way lies a higher degree of social well-being and a better public morality.

If proof were still wanting that this "grovelling dispute over taxes," as it has been called by a moralist of the lurid school, has in it the power to stir the moral nature, it might be seen in the more striking party changes which it is causing. Every election brings desertions from one side or the other. There are always the mercenaries who jump the way they think the cat is going to, and the men who "vote for Kane." There are plenty of them in this campaign, no doubt. But the remarkable thing about it is the great number of unselfish and thoughtful men between whom and their party this tariff question has thrust a sharp sword. To break up old party associations and attachments is no easy thing for such men. It means a violent wrench for them. It means reproach and, often, obloquy. They dread these things, and they brave them only under the imperative command laid upon them by conscience.

#### ONE-CENT LETTER POSTAGE.

ONE of the measures to which the Republican party stands committed by its platform is the reduction of letter postage to one cent an ounce. The proposal is an attractive one, but, considering its origin, it should be scrutinized with care. The dominant element in that party is determined above all things to maintain the tariff. To this end it is willing to remit the tax on whiskey, and to this end it is willing to favor any expenditure of money that is likely to prove unremunerative. At present it is necessary to raise by taxation a sum estimated at \$4,000,000 a year, and really considerably more, in order to meet the deficit in the revenues of the Post-office. It is obvious that if this deficit can be increased by a reduction of postage, the tariff will be so much more secure. Such a result would be entirely consistent with a policy that aims to deceive the people as to the real cost of their government. It would be merely offering as a gratuity what must be paid for by increased taxation—a process always economically wasteful and generally politically corrupting.

The New York *Tribune* has recently undertaken to defend this measure upon two grounds. It declares that cheap postage means the rapid diffusion of intelligence; and that as the Republican party is the party of intelligence, it naturally favors cheap postage, while the Democratic party, as the party of ignorance, opposes it. This argument, however grateful to the intelligence of the readers of the *Tribune*, can hardly be regarded as conclusive. The question involved is, whether those who use the post shall pay for the service what it costs and when they get it, or whether they shall get it for less than it

costs, and let the deficiency fall on the revenue raised by taxation. To allow a man to send a letter for one cent when it costs more, and then to tax him to make up the loss, is properly not to cheapen postage, but to make it more expensive by the amount lost in collecting the tax.

Under our present system of tariff taxation, the burden of a deficiency in postal revenue falls heaviest upon those who write the fewest letters. Letters are written chiefly by business men and by persons of wealth and leisure. The mass of the common people are not great letter-writers. Their simple affairs do not require much correspondence, and their incessant toil does not admit of it. For the Government to carry letters at less than cost is to make the poor pay for a convenience used especially by the well-to-do. It is true that such a convenience indirectly benefits all classes, but the same is true of every appliance that encourages intercourse. Railroads lead to the rapid diffusion of intelligence and of wealth, but that is no reason why those who travel should not pay their fares, or why those who send freight should send it for nothing.

The other argument by which the *Tribune* supports this measure is, that the deficiency that it will create will be temporary. If this were true, it would settle the question, for all that is demanded by justice is that the Postal Department shall be self-supporting. A large profit is obtained from this source, it is true, by Great Britain, but this profit is obviously a tax, and such a tax would be so unpopular in this country that it is idle to consider its merits. If letters can be carried for one cent an ounce without loss, the country will unquestionably demand that they shall be carried at that rate, and the demand will be complied with under those circumstances at least as readily by the Democratic as by the Republican party.

The argument, however, is not valid. It proceeds upon the assumption that since a reduction in the rate of postage has usually been followed by such an increase of business as to make up the loss of revenue, therefore the reduction of letter postage to one cent an ounce will be followed by this result. But it is easy to see the fallacy of this. Up to a certain point, in almost any industry, a larger business can be done at relatively less expense, and therefore at a lower rate. Beyond that point the ratio of expense to business is comparatively steady. If the rate is fixed too low, the more business increases the greater the loss in doing it. These truths are so elementary that it would hardly be worth while to state them were it not for a popular impression that there is something peculiar about the postal business, and that somehow it is impossible for its rates to be fixed so low that they will not pay its expenses. The reduction of rates has been so enormous as to furnish considerable support to this belief, but its absurdity can be shown by reference to a single fact. The rate of postage for newspapers and periodicals is now so low that they are carried at a loss, and this loss increases with the increase of this class of matter. According to the estimate of the Postmaster-General, it

now constitutes nearly one-third of the weight of the mails, while it brings in about one-fortieth of the revenue. If the other two-thirds paid the same rate of postage, the revenue of the Post-office would be about \$4,000,000 instead of \$46,000,000. Although the reports of the postal service do not furnish much information on the subject, it is yet possible to prove from them that a reduction of letter postage to one cent an ounce would probably bring it below the point where an increase of business brings an increase of profit. The revenue of the office is derived almost exclusively from stamps, and amounts to some \$45,700,000 from this source. The amount derived from second class matter is positively known to be \$1,364,000. The amount derived from fourth class matter cannot be definitely fixed, but we may adopt the official conjecture that it is \$2,000,000. As to third class matter, it is impossible to be accurate, but, from a variety of circumstances, it is probable that \$5,000,000 would be an exaggerated estimate of its amount. Postal cards produce \$3,570,000. Putting the total of these items at \$12,000,000, we have remaining about \$33,700,000 as the revenue derived from first class matter.

The expenditure of the office is about \$52,000,000 yearly, and of this we may say roughly that \$25,000,000 is on account of transportation and other expenses that vary directly with the amount of business, and the rest is on account of salaries and wages. If, now, the rate of postage were reduced as proposed, and in consequence the amount of first class matter doubled, the revenue would stand at the same figure as at present, \$46,000,000. Estimating the first class matter as constituting one-half of the present weight of the mail, the transportation account would then be \$37,500,000. If the salary account remained the same, the total expenditure would be \$64,500,000, a deficit of nearly \$19,000,000. If the amount of first class matter quadrupled, the revenue would rise to about \$80,000,000, the transportation account to over \$62,000,000, and, even on the extravagant supposition that the salary account was not increased, the deficit would be about \$10,000,000. Reasoning from the past rate of increase of the salary account, the deficit would be far larger, and would increase with the increase of business.

While these estimates are largely conjectural, they may be depended upon sufficiently to justify the conclusion that one-cent letter postage, at the present cost of transportation, and with the present rate of postage on second class matter, would be an expensive luxury. The *Tribune* suggests that Republican orators would do well to remind their hearers that a Republican Congress would mean one-cent postage. We trust that the suggestion will be acted on, feeling sufficient confidence in the intelligence of their hearers to believe that they will reflect that one-cent postage will have to be paid for in taxes, that these taxes come principally out of the earnings of poor people, and that well-to-do people will get the principal benefit of the change.



## A LOW OPINION OF THE CHACE BILL.

THE August number of *Belford's Magazine* contains an editorial contribution on "International Copyright," which exhibits a gloomy view of the future of that question, and is especially severe upon the Chace bill. "The authors want in an international copyright," according to this article, "what the people are not only ignorant of, but would set their multitudinous countenance against were they enlightened." And the prospects are no brighter as regards Congress. A lugubrious picture is drawn of the abject drudgery imposed upon a member of Congress by his constituency, and the writer exclaims: "Think of such a life, and the man engaged in it being called upon to consider cases of abstract justice—in other words, to hear an earnest advocate of a moral right lying outside of the Solon's immediate business. Such advocate is regarded justly as a crank and a bore. To avoid him the member dives down alleys and hides in the cloak-room, or the barber-shop, or less savory localities, and blasphemes." The first two sections of Mr. Spencer's chapter on "The Right of Property in Ideas," are quoted from his 'Social Statics,' as containing all that there is to be said on the subject of the moral obligation to respect intellectual property; but as out of the whole number of Senators, Members, and Delegates in Congress (according to our author, who is, presumably, Mr. Don Piatt himself) there are "only thirteen who know who Herbert Spencer is, and only five who have read anything from his pen, one can clearly see not only the little influence the ablest thinker of the century has upon our law-making body, but how wide apart are the literary guild and Congress. . . . We must not be understood as giving the cold shoulder to what these gifted sons of the pen are so earnest in denouncing," Mr. Piatt explains. "We are only striving to show the utter hopelessness of their attempt to get a remedy from Congress." Even if the widest information could be diffused, however, it is thought doubtful if the effect would amount to much, and the explanation of this and the reason for the severe denunciation of the Chace bill are stated as follows:

"For the last quarter of a century the public conscience has been dulled and all business debauched by a policy that makes politics mere trickery and business a system of theft. When the Government entered the field of private enterprise and sought to build a privileged class on taxation, it was guilty of a fraud that has poisoned the people, and we have in a great measure destroyed all honest dealing. The book-publishers, for example, suffer no shame in acknowledging that their business is theft, and their great accumulations mere plunder; for they have given and are giving the people cheap books. This is enough for the Congressmen, and the bill agreed on leaves the stealing intact. That is, it shifts denial of international copyright from the Government to the publishers. If the foreign author will, within a certain time after producing his book in a foreign country, secure an American publisher, and have the same printed on American paper by American printers, he may possess the poor privilege of calling his own property his own. Of course this will be followed

by a pool or Trust among our publishers, and the international copyright will be a statute to benefit the thieving publishers. What heretofore has been mere neglect will thereafter have the sanction of law. All new books by untried authors will be at the mercy of the publishers, and open to plunder by the Typographical Union and the Paper Trust. The advocates of this measure claim that this bill passed to a law will be a recognition of the right. We can see nothing of the sort in the impudent and iniquitous measure. It simply sanctions by law all that has been sanctioned by time, and lifts the thieves into recognition as respectable men. The assurance of a claim from publishers who are already protected by a high tariff on foreign books—a tax on knowledge—fairly stuns one."

In the last paragraph of this article it is insisted that the law of trade-marks affords to literary property all the protection that can be asked for; and this view is said to have received the sanction of the ablest lawyers of the country. But although so high an authority as Jeremiah Sullivan Black is named as having held this opinion, it is difficult to believe that authors would, under trade-mark law, secure adequate protection for their productions. It is undoubtedly true that the title of a book may be protected as a trade-mark, and in isolated cases this protection of the title may practically secure the book from piracy, because the reprinting of the work under any other title would be unprofitable. A good example of such a case is that of the only English book protected by the courts of this country, namely, the celebrated 'Chatter-box.' Its title is registered as a trade-mark, and as the popularity of the book—an annual volume of selections with illustrations—depends upon the reputation acquired by the particular series of selections so named, the publisher is granted a property right in the title, and the use of this designation, or any near imitation of it, for some other book of selections is prohibited, as well as the use of it in connection with a reprint of the work itself. But it is to be noted that this prohibition does not extend to the book aside from the title. As Mr. Justice Wheeler very plainly stated in the opinion rendered in the case of *Estes vs. Williams* (21 *Federal Reporter*, 189): "There being no copyright to prevent, the defendants claim the right to so print and publish the series of books [the various 'Chatter-box' volumes] in this country. There is no question but that the defendants have the right to reprint the compositions and illustrations contained in these books, including the titles of the several pieces and pictures."

But if the law as laid down in this case were applied, for example, to a work by Alfred Tennyson, who might have secured a trade-mark property in its title, it will easily be seen that in the absence of an international copyright the author's trade-mark protection would avail him nothing, because the text of the work could still be reprinted, and the cunning pirate would only need to give the fraudulent edition some such designation as 'The Latest Poem by the Poet-Laureate of England,' to secure its ready identification by the public, and a consequent sale for it, to the author's loss. There

would seem to be a clear difference of principle involved. As Mr. Sebastian, in his work on 'Trade-Marks,' says: "A trade-mark does not protect the substance of the article to which it is attached from being imitated, but it identifies an article and indicates the source to which that article is to be attributed." But what the author first of all requires is protection for the substance of his book. The name he gives it is of secondary importance, and may be next to no title at all, as 'The Writings of John Smith,' for example. And it is worthy of notice that the statutes created to protect his book do not afford any protection to his title, except as the title is an integral part of the book.

## CONVICTS AND DEMAGOGUES.

THE Legislature of the State of New York is not a body that commands high respect. The public views the beginning of its sessions with apprehension and their close with relief. It has passed many bad laws, but it has perhaps never passed a law so bad as the recent act concerning the prisons. As a combination of reckless cruelty, of economic folly, and of base subserviency to the lowest element in our politics, this measure is unsurpassed. By its provisions the use of machinery in all the penal institutions of the State is prohibited, and the sale of such products as the inmates thus handicapped might still produce is made illegal. The result is, that the prisoners are now locked in their cells, the machinery of the prisons is idle, and the workshops are deserted. This is the immediate result, but the consequences of depriving men of employment are remote as well as immediate. They will appear in an increase of sickness, insanity, and death among the convicts. They will also appear when convicts are discharged, or rather turned loose upon society, to make such a living as can be made in these days by men untrained in the use of machinery.

One of the features of that ably managed institution, the Elmira Reformatory, is the publication by the inmates of a weekly newspaper called the *Summary*. Every one who has read this paper will testify that it is—from a literary point of view, at least—up to the average of the press of the country, and that it is singularly clean, sensible, and able in its management. It might properly be recommended for general circulation, but such a recommendation would be useless. It is now clearly illegal either to sell or to give a copy of the paper to any person whatsoever, even to an inmate of the Reformatory where it is composed. There are trade schools in this institution where young men have been taught such arts as would enable them to earn their own support when discharged. These schools must be suppressed, for there is no authority for the expenditure of money for the purchase of the materials or the payment of the instructors which they require. It may be added that it is contrary to the spirit of our legislation that such training should be given to convicts. It only serves to make their competition more dangerous to "Labor" when they are freed from restraint.



We have referred to the *Summary*, however, not for the purpose of arousing sympathy over its fate, but to call attention to certain appeals that have appeared recently in its columns. It may be stated by way of explanation that the Superintendent of the Elmira Reformatory provides a letter box, into which the inmates are allowed to drop communications addressed to him upon such subjects as they choose, and that the appeals which we quote below are specimens taken from a large number of similar tenor:

"Can you find me employment, and oblige one who had rather work than remain idle?"

"I have lain all day looking at the wall. Will you please let me have some work?"

"Please give me something to do—anything."

"I hope you will be able to find some work for me, no matter how low or menial. Before I came here I detested work. Now I am almost crazy for something to do."

"Could you not find me something to do? It is harder to kill time now than it ever was to put up my task in the foundry."

"Be so kind as to give me a job. I am a good hand at painting. Rather work than remain idle."

"Can you find me a place to work somewhere? I am almost dead after being idle so long. I had rather work day and night than to remain idle. Please give me work, hard work. The day seems two days."

"Please give me work at painting or anything else. I cannot sleep at night."

"Do please let me have some work."

We will not insult the intelligence of our readers by arguing that whatever offences these young men may have committed, they are yet human beings and ought not to be treated with wanton cruelty. It is impossible that any one should seriously maintain that convicts ought not to be permitted to work, or that it is not the duty of the State to make them work. What we do urge is, that it is the immediate duty of all conscientious citizens to let their representatives know that they must stop their shameful trifling with the lives and interests of several thousand of the most helpless of their fellow-creatures. These men should be made to understand that there are other votes to be thought of besides those of a few unprincipled manufacturers and labor agitators. They should be required to explain publicly the reasons for their action. They should be compelled to answer without evasion or equivocation the following questions: (1.) Must not the convicts be supported? (2.) If so, must they not be supported either by their own labor or by that of law-abiding citizens? (3.) If they are not to be supported by their own labor, how are other laborers benefited by being made to work for the support of idle convicts?

Let us put the case as plainly as possible, and ask, If there were two communities in all respects similar, in one of which the prisoners supported themselves, while in the other they were supported at the public expense, whether the rate of wages would not be lower in the latter community, and if not, why not? The talk of the competition of the products of convict labor with those of free labor is a capital *reductio ad absurdum* of the theory of protection. The products of the convicts are bartered for

those of other laborers. The other laborers therefore get an equivalent for the goods transferred to and consumed by the convicts. Put a stop to the labor of the convicts, and the free laborers are still compelled by the taxing power of the State to transfer the same quantity of their products to the convicts for their consumption, but they now get as an equivalent—nothing. And it is by such measures as this that our legislators show their sympathy with "Labor"! The situation is described with grim humor in the following extract from an article on the subject by Mr. Eugene Smith, the Secretary of the New York Prison Association:

"In Great Britain the standing grievance of the Labor party has been for many years the large budget required for the support of the royal family. The tax levied for this object has excited a deeper discontent, and has stirred up more disloyal and riotous demonstrations on the part of the laboring classes, than perhaps any other public burden imposed on the English people. It has been a matter of national satisfaction in the United States that we had no regal establishment to be maintained at the public expense. But now come the special advocates of free labor and propose to place on the American people a burden of taxation far heavier than the burden of royalty; to erect into a dependent and unproductive class, which shall be housed, fed, and clothed out of the public Treasury, a body of men more numerous than the royal family with all its dependencies. And all this they demand as a boon to the laboring man! Does the Labor party in Great Britain and Ireland object to supporting a dependent class because it is royal? or does the Labor party in the United States insist on supporting a dependent class because it is criminal? And if the burden takes the form of taxation, what difference does it make whether the class supported is royal or criminal?"

#### POETS AND COÖPERATIVES.

ON THE BAY OF SPEZIA, AUGUST, 1888.

I COME from Casa Magni, and am writing in the shadow of the ilex and walnut trees under whose dark, massive, intermingled foliage Shelley wrote most of his poems after he left Pisa in 1822 till he suffered the sea change. There was no spot in the whole world that I had so longed to visit, had been so near and yet (through mere chance) left unvisited, and a mere chance has brought me here to-day, namely, an invitation from the workmen of Spezia, Lerici, and San Terenzio to launch the third steamer that they have built with their own capital, and, we may truly say, with the sweat of their brow. A second invitation, from a Russian lady, Dr. Paper, lodged me in the house overlooking Casa Magni and the very room in which Shelley slept.

Can you wonder that my first thought was to ascertain who now was the owner of that house, and whether it still could be visited, as, hearing that the new owner was an Englishman, I feared me much to receive a "no"? But all such fear was put to flight by a courteous permission to visit the house and wander in the rooms at will from Mrs. Pearse, whose husband has purchased the whole property—that is to say, the ilex and olive woods, and the large house on the summit behind, which "Mary" tells us was, in her time, falling into ruin, as the proprietor was insane and his malady prevented its being finished. That

house upon the hill is now complete, and a delicious summer residence it must be, as it is now let. The new proprietors actually inhabit the house that Shelley dwelt in, which is not included in the purchase, and which unfortunately the owner is allowing to go utterly to ruin. There it is exactly as the Shelleys left it, and indeed as they found it when Shelley arrived at Lerici on the 28th of April, 1822—a white house with arches, which had once been a Jesuit convent, sheltered by the steep, wooded hill behind, on the edge of the cove in the depth of which nestles the fishing village of San Terenzio. A small house it is for one family, as the unpaved ground floor which Shelley used for storing boat-gear and fishing tackle, and which is now filled with huge olive jars, is uninhabitable; yet as no other house could be found for the Williamses, Shelley gave them half of his, and here on the 1st of May, 1822, the whole party took possession of their new abode.

It would be difficult to imagine a more perfect poet's home, with the sea which (though tideless) owing to an almost constant ground swell, dashes and foams against its walls—a sea now gray and hoary, now violet or green or blue, oftenest golden, as the sturdy rowers cleave the waves with their oars, and the sun shines down into the clefts.

The view from the veranda which surrounds the house is, even for Italy, we will not say unrivalled, but certainly it cannot be outrivalled. The horizon is bounded by the meeting line "twixt sea and sky." To the left the picturesque castle of Lerici overlooks the little town of the same name, where the water laps the basement of the white, flat-roofed houses and is generally calm and quiet in its port, so that when boats and steamers cannot near San Terenzio, in Lerici they can always enter and land their passengers and freight. And now we look eastward with our eyes fixed, as Shelley's were for days and days, on that opening between Monte Tino and Porto Venere. There it was that, on the 12th of May, Shelley descried from the terrace "a strange sail coming round the point," a sail strange even to Magliani, the kindly harbor-master. It was the long-expected, alas! fatal, boat, built by Captain Roberts, who had also built the *Bolduc* for Lord Byron at Genoa. Too heavy a swell was swinging upon the shore at San Terenzio; so, though the weather was cloudy and threatening, Shelley and Williams walked to Lerici, "made a stretch off the land to try her, found that she fetched whatever she looked at, that in short they had a perfect plaything for the summer." Only there was one vexation: Tre-lawny had named the boat *Don Juan*, whereas Mary and Shelley had named her the *Ariel*, and Lord Byron, offended at the change, had written to Roberts to have the name painted on the mainsail. "For days and nights, full twenty-one," writes Mary, "did Shelley and Edward ponder on her anabaptism and the washing out of her primeval stain; turpentine, spirits of wine, *lucato*, all were tried, and it became dappled, and no more. At length a piece has been taken out and reefs put, so that the sail does not look the worse." Eight and forty days afterwards Shelley left his "divine bay" on board the *Ariel*, and at nine o'clock on the first day of July she cast anchor alongside the *Bolduc*, Byron's yacht, in the port of Leghorn. Eight days later, dawn was ushered in with a thunder-storm, but it rolled away, and all again was fair; but before the sun had set on the sea that he loved better even than the sun, our singing god had looked his last on sea and sky and sweetest earth, telling us for the last time

"the wondrous story  
How all things are transfigured except love."

What an old story it is—sixty six years old this summer; yet you can fancy it happened yesterday, so vividly, in her passionate anguish, has Mary told the tale, completed by Trelawny.

The absurd story trumped up by Sir Vincent Eyre, "that an old fisherman who had died twelve years before at Sarzana, confessed to a priest that he was one of five who, seeing the English boat in great danger, thinking that Byron was on board and that they should find gold," etc., etc., is so utterly ridiculous that Trelawny must have been in his dotage to have given it the least credence. It was always known, from the time that Captain Roberts raised the *Ariel* from fifteen fathoms of water, that the gunwale was stove in and a great hole knocked in the stern timbers; but what does that prove? That there had been a collision, an accidental collision. One has but to sail or row on this sea in a squall, as we did yesterday, to realize that sailors, even though they be Ligurian sailors, than whom the world knows no braver, would have quite enough to do to hold their own, and that all thought of plunder would be lost in the struggle for dear life. And the day on which Shelley was lost, all eyewitnesses agree in telling how the sun was obscured by mists, how it was dark long before sunset, how sea and sky were black as blackest night. It would be too horrible to believe that Shelley's loving heart, his sweet, love-beaming eyes, were saddened by the sight of such a crime—a crime which, under the circumstances, could not have been committed, and therefore we may say it was not. Surely it is grief enough to have lost him just as he had begun to be his best and greatest self, without "piling the agony" up higher in that melodramatic fashion. Much pleasanter it is to dwell on the fact that Shelley lived out his last days in gladness and in such beautiful surroundings, and that he found his death in the sea he loved so well—his grave in that very spot of which he wrote: "The cemetery is an open space among the ruins, under the pyramid which is the tomb of Cestius, and the massive walls and towers now mouldering and desolate which formed the circuit of ancient Rome—the ruins covered even in winter with violets and daisies; it might make one in love with death to think that one should be buried in so sweet a place."

Very curious is Mary's detestation of this lovely place; in her horror there is surely something of presentiment, and the horror colors all her descriptions of this primitive but certainly not barbarous people. "The natives," she writes, "were wilder than the place; our near neighbors of San Terenzio were more like savages than any I have ever lived among. Many a night they passed on the beach singing or rather howling, the women dancing about among the waves that broke at their feet, the men leaning against the rocks, joining in their loud, wild chorus." All which merely means that the fishermen's wives, grandfathers, and children used, then as now, to wait upon the rocks and along the shore for the return of the husbands, fathers, and sons from their often dangerous voyages. "No provisions," she complains, "could be got nearer than Sarzana, and even there the supply was very deficient; nor, had we been wrecked upon an island in the South Seas, could we have felt ourselves further from civilization and comfort." Even to-day the inhabitants of San Terenzio live chiefly upon bread, fruit, and fish; but as there is now quite a little colony of Italians, Russians, American, and English who come every summer during the

bathing season, housekeeping is a far less toilsome task than it was in Mary's time. You get excellent butcher's meat, the water is fresh and sparkling, and the wine of the hills is as good as you need want.

To-day San Terenzio is in full festival, as we have just returned from the launch of the *Alleanza del Golfo*, built at Lerici and sent off the stocks into the foaming, dancing waves in the presence of some 15,000 workmen and their invited guests, who from dawn this morning until four p. m. have been steaming and rowing into the little town from every village and hamlet overhanging the coast, as from Spezia herself. This is the third steamer built by the coöperative society of workmen with their own saved-up capital, and in part by their own handiwork on festivals and evenings. Coöperation in Italy has considerable difficulty in holding its own against the "dissolving views" of Socialists, Communists, Anarchists, and Nihilists, who, though they have never succeeded in getting any fact accomplished, evince real genius in putting spokes into other people's wheels. But at least half of the workmen of Liguria are thoroughgoing Mazzinians—politically, economically, if not always religiously; and coöperation was one of Mazzini's favorite factors of progress, Cattaneo also maintaining that any miracle may be accomplished "by associated minds."

Just five years ago, in the little hamlet of Solaro, overhanging the Gulf, five workmen met to discuss the possibility of putting by their savings in sufficient sums and in sufficient numbers to build a steamer of their own to carry the operatives to and from their work in Spezia, at the Arsenal, or at the great lead foundry of Pertusola. Great difficulties had to be overcome, and much persuasive patience exhausted, before they could put together \$10,000 with which to build the *Workman's Union*, which was launched just three years ago. She was a complete success, and, though carrying passengers for a third less than her competitors, in a year the profits were sufficient to build the sister vessel, the *Emilia Henfrey*, and again the *Alliance* launched to-day. The paid-up social capital amounts to-day to \$40,000, and the coöperatives have decided at once to lay down a fourth steamer. Besides the ordinary traffic to and from Spezia, the Government pays them 500 francs a month for taking the invalid marines to and from the hospital at Porto Venere. Thus coöperation in the Gulf of Spezia has achieved a signal triumph.

After the launch, which was really a beautiful spectacle—seventy associations with their bands and colors filing in and taking up their station round the finished vessel, with her colors flying and her steam up, though still on the stocks—an old man approached me, wishing to present to me his son, the professor. "I am Poggi Felice," quoth he. Then we remembered that he was one of the fourteen workmen whose hands we clasped thirty years ago on board the *Cagliari*, as they were starting with Pisacane for the glorious but fatal expedition of Sapri to free Naples from the Bourbon. They failed, those brave ones: six were cut to pieces with their leaders, Pisacane and Falcone; the rest, after being condemned to death, were confined with their third leader, Nicotera, in the underground dungeons of Favignana. But their failure was the forerunner of the success of the "Thousand." Pisacane and his followers were the pioneers of Garibaldi and the successful liberators of Sicily and Naples. Garibaldi it was who liberated them from Favignana, and, once free, they immediately enlisted in the crack corps of the Genoese sharpshooters, and at the battle of Milazzo one was killed and five

were wounded. Of these five Poggi was one; three are dead, and one, Carlo Rota, I am told, I shall find at San Pier d'Arena, where he is the head and soul of coöperation among the workmen.

SAN PIER D'ARENA.—VOLTRI, August 18.

This letter, commenced in Shelley's ilex woods overhanging the Bay of Spezia, has, after some days of wandering along the coast, to be finished at San Pier d'Arena and posted at Voltri. Here coöperation is indeed flourishing, for the workmen have four different coöperative societies—the Society of Mutual Aid, the Coöperative Stores, the Building Society, and the Coöperative Iron Foundry. The stores have nothing particular except that their accounts are kept as I have never seen any other accounts kept, public or private, for clearness or precision. You can go through their books for the last twenty years, and see for yourself the amount of capital, of losses, profits, and how the dividends are distributed. At present their capital amounts to \$45,000, besides the reserve fund of \$10,000, and of another \$2,000 calculated for the wear and tear of machinery, utensils, and furniture. Their profits for the last six months are a clear \$5,000, divided thus: 7 per cent. on all the paid-up shares, 3½ per cent. on all the purchases made at the stores. Each share costs \$4, and no one can own more than fifty shares. These stores have nine sub-stores, all kept by members, who give in their accounts daily and balance them every three months. The commodities are few but excellent—wine, bread, *paste* (macaroni), flour, cheese, coffee, sugar, biscuits, eggs, and dried mushrooms. Once they tried butcher's meat, but made as dismal a failure as their English brethren, lost \$2,000, and shut up shop at once. They make no point of underselling the ordinary shopkeepers, marking their goods at barely less by 5 per cent. At first the women were opposed to the system because they could not get credit, but the 3½ per cent. returned to them for every hundred francs spent overcame all opposition. The stores are opened to all non-members, who, beginning with next year, are also to receive 3 per cent. on their purchases. The iron foundry is also a success, and has a capital of \$80,000. The home of the Mutual Aid Society is really an elegant building, with reading-rooms, bathroom, dispensary, a doctor who attends daily from twelve till two, and a hall capable of holding two thousand people.

But what we consider the triumph of coöperation in San Pier d'Arena is the Building Society. Workingmen's homes in Italy, especially in cities, and of all cities in Naples, are generally unfit for human habitation. Piggeries, dog-kennels, fowl-houses, not to speak of stables, are often cleaner and less populated. In one room we have found, not only in underground Naples, but in cities such as Adria, eleven human beings huddled together—living, sleeping, feeding, etc., between four square walls with mud pavement, and often only with a hole in the roof for the smoke to escape. How, we ask, is cleanliness or morality to be taught or learned? How can a tired workman be expected to exchange the delights of a pothouse for the din, filth, and confusion of his so-called home? Now these workingmen's houses, built by the coöperatives of San Pier d'Arena, are really palatial residences. Each apartment has three bedrooms, a sitting-room, a kitchen, closets, and (*rara avis*) a water-closet. The members wanting an apartment pay fifteen cents a week until the palace is completed. In each of the palaces, nine stories high (so built because of the enormous price of



ground), you have from thirty to thirty-six apartments, each supposed to cost \$1,000. For each of these, duly numbered, lots are drawn, so that fate decides whether you shall live on a terrace or on a ground floor (some reduction, however, being made for these extremities), or whether the stairs you have to climb shall be 30 or 200. When once the apartment is ready for habitation, the inmates pay five dollars a month till they have cleared off the \$1,000, when the apartment is their very own. Often a small family will take an apartment and let off the bedrooms to other workmen with their wives, keeping the sitting-room and kitchen in common. Carlo Rota, Pisacane's companion, one of the five wounded at Milazzo, is the President of the Cooperative Associations, and, with Armirotti, the workmen's member of Parliament, took us over all the buildings and gave us these details, which we have thought really well worth recording.

Of Voltri I will only say that we are guests in the Mameli palace, now belonging to Nicola, the brother of Goffredo, Italy's soldier poet, whose "Fratelli d'Italia, l'Italia è desta" was the war hymn of every Italian volunteer who fought and died that Italy might live and claim for her own Rome, for which Goffredo himself fought and fell in 1849, and where he too is buried—not with Shelley in the heretic cemetery, but in Campo Varano, where Pio Nono also sleeps the sleep that knows no waking.

J. W. M.

#### THE TEMPLE OF PAPHIAN APHRODITE.—II.

PARIS, August 7.

THE most amazing statement on page 210 of 'Cyprus' is now to come: "The southeast wall," that is, of the "peribolos," of which (as we read not many lines above) only a few blocks are extant, "I ascertained, by excavating its whole length, was 690 feet long." Evidently there is some confusion here. If there are only a few blocks of this wall extant, then it is not 690 feet long. Called upon to decide between our author's two statements, I have assured myself, by observation on the site, that the former and not the latter gives the truth. I understand that all attempts to find traces of this extended wall have proved without result. If Gen. di Cesnola had refreshed his memory, in the preparation of his ground-plan of the temple, by consulting Von Hammer's plan, I am sure that he would have altered his views about this peribolos, or outside wall. Von Hammer's plan represents a steep hill, near the brow of which he supposes the temple to have stood. The peribolos wall of Gen. di Cesnola has to plunge down into the valley and run off at an almost breakneck slope, before these 690 feet can be accounted for. The best proof, however, that there has been some mistake, is that this wall exists nowhere, either above or below ground. Gen. di Cesnola's assertion that "of this 'peribolos' only a few blocks are extant," is further confirmed because, of the 272 feet on the west of which he speaks, hardly a quarter can now be found. Hence, when our author says, "The length of the west side I could only trace as far as 272 feet," and "The length of the other two sides I was unable to ascertain," we are ready with a question. For what good reason do the four sides of this non-proven peribolos wall appear upon his plan? The length of two of these sides, our author says, he could not ascertain, and he is not sure that they exist. A very small fraction of this 272 feet on the west can be found. As to the length of the fourth side, his statement that he excavated 690 feet of

it is discredited, first, by his own declaration that "Of the whole peribolos only a few blocks are extant," and, next, by the facts, which convinced every visitor of Old Paphos that this wall of 690 feet is a physical absurdity. Thus the outside and larger parallelogram of the plan, given on page 212, and described on page 210 of 'Cyprus,' does not correspond with the remains discoverable upon the site of the temple, and its four sides should be dispensed with. If additional proof were needed, it would be this. The few extant blocks which form the southwest corner of this non-proven peribolos wall do not now lie, and never have lain, on lines parallel with any of the lines of Gen. di Cesnola's inner and smaller parallelogram, which is supposed to represent the temple proper—what various people have ventured to speak of as its *cella*. Of this inappropriate use of the term "*cella*" our author is innocent, but not of having forgotten the wisest and truest thing which his eighth chapter contains, namely, that an enormous mass of accumulated rubbish required removal from the site of the temple at Old Paphos.

This rubbish Gen. di Cesnola admits that he did not remove. How, then, can he expect us to follow him when, on page 211, he says: "The walls of the temple itself . . . I was able to trace correctly, by dint of patience. Though very little is seen above ground," adds he, "yet, strange to say, the four corner stones are still standing." This is indeed strange to say, for of these four "corner-stones" only two have ever been at the corner of any building, and not one was ever at the corner of the temple. Furthermore, I satisfied myself on the spot that, if these four corners, two of which were not and are not corners, were made the corners of a building, that building would not be a parallelogram, and would not have the dimensions given for the temple in 'Cyprus.' Therefore the inner and smaller parallelogram of the plan on page 212 must be called in question. One of the walls, for instance, taken there to be the south wall of the temple, proves to be the outer wall of a vast porch lying south of the temple; and so I might continue. I said that Von Hammer, and consequently Engel, was, in respect of size, nearer the facts with his plan than the author of 'Cyprus.' This is true, because the south wall of what Von Hammer considered the Umfassungsmauer, or peribolos of the temple, corresponds to the outer wall of this portico. Now, the length of this wall is within bowshot of what Von Hammer gives as the length of the peribolos. But still, Von Hammer exaggerates; his outside wall is 100 by 150 paces. This is more oblong than is Gen. di Cesnola's temple, 221 feet long by 167 broad. I imagine, however, that Von Hammer would not vouch for the accuracy of his measurements within an inch or two, as General di Cesnola does for his.

The difference is great between General di Cesnola's temple and the only structure which now has undeniable claim to be considered to represent the real temple. It is therefore deeply to be regretted that the wholly impossible plan of General di Cesnola's 'Cyprus' should have found a place in the third volume of Perrot and Chipiez. Like the temple of the plan on page 212, the real temple is oblong, but its interior width is about 18 feet, against 167 on the plan in 'Cyprus,' and its interior length is about 58 feet, against 221 in our author's plan. The walls of this most ancient shrine are 4½ feet thick. If the points of the compass are well given on my sketch-plan of the temple, its orientation is about that of the shrine of "El Maabed," as given by M. Ernest Renan in his 'Mission de Phénicie.'

This shrine is at Marathus, in the part of Syria from which Cuvras is failed to have come.

But to return to page 211 of 'Cyprus.' I am convinced there is error in the statement that "the corner stone of the northwest side" (i. e., of the temple) "has a hole in it thirteen inches in diameter." It is, however, perfectly true that "a similar hole also exists in the southwest corner," i. e., the only corner of the supposed outer wall. Not only is there one, but there are many holes in this "southwest corner." I repeat that General di Cesnola escapes a part of the responsibility for his statement that "these strange holes, which go through the whole stone, may have been connected with" the oracle of the great Paphian temple. The description of these holes, a misleading one, is our author's, but the notion about the oracle is cited as the opinion of Dr. Friedrichs, who visited General di Cesnola at Paphos. The General is, however, himself responsible for this last statement upon his page 211 with which I shall quarrel. "From this spot," i. e., the corner in question, "if a person stand upon this large perforated stone, he can produce a clear and fine echo of a phrase of three or four words, pronounced in a moderate tone of voice." To this let me add, that if a person stands a short distance away from the "large perforated stone," he can also produce the same echo. In fact, it was proved to me that the echo was due to the existence of the Lusignan castle not far off. Remove that medieval building and the echo disappears. But what could an echo have to do with an oracle? Nay, more, what could these holes have to do with an oracle? Our author's account of them, with his subsequent word, "perforated," suggests that these holes were visible from the outside, or came through to the outside. This is not the case. Ross gives the best account of them, saying that the stones have "deep cuts on their inner side, which served to give a hold to the implements used in moving them." He mentions similar holes in the stones of temples in Sicily, an island where the Phœnicians have also left many traces of their presence.

Neither General di Cesnola nor his friend Dr. Friedrichs invented this notion about the oracle. That, again, can be found in Von Hammer's book, published at Vienna in 1811. It would seem that Dr. Friedrichs inculcated our author with all the errors contained in Von Hammer's brilliant but hasty sketch. The notion of granite at Old Paphos is a casual slip of Von Hammer's, who likewise originated the peribolos, and described these holes definitely as "grosse Löcher die von aussen nach innen in einer krummen Linie gehöhrt sind." Then he gives, in much more plausible form than our author's, the suggestion of communication from inside the temple with people outside, and also suggests a connection with oracles. The whole theory falls when it is remembered that these holes cannot be reached or seen from the outside, and that they end nowhere. They all—and there are many of them—start from the inside into the vertical side of a stone, and, after turning awhile within, come out upon its horizontal side. This is usually the lower horizontal side. These holes are not very dissimilar in their course from some of the wonderful loop tunnels in the St. Gotthard Railway. They all issue in a line at right angles to that of their entrance, and their issue is always against the surface of the next stone. Hence Ross seems to be nearest to the truth. They cannot have been of use after the wall was constructed, and may have served in the transportation of the blocks.



Turning now to page 213, we find our author speaking of the plain between Kouklia and the shore; this, he says, "must formerly have been wooded." I do not know why the word "must" is justifiable here, but perhaps what immediately follows will explain. This plain, we read, "was doubtless the grove spoken of by Homer." Homer mentions a precinct, which may, of course, have contained a grove, but there is nowhere in Homer mention of a grove at Paphos. And, finally, we come to Von Hammer's last error, revised and enlarged by General di Cesnola. Near the sea, but not by any means so near as the most completely misleading picture on page 214 would have us suppose, stand two curious stones five feet apart, which Messrs. Guillemard and Hogarth at one time believed might have been parts of some ancient wine press or oil press. Von Hammer saw these; called the oblong holes (which are their most remarkable feature) windows; and said they were remains of the ancient port of Old Paphos. Near them Von Hammer describes a pit filled with all manner of architectural fragments. These last, he suggests, belonged possibly to an ancient temple, at which perhaps the yearly procession from New Paphos paused, and where its members may have made preliminary sacrifice before going up the hill to the temple of Old Paphos. Von Hammer also says that here was the spot where Aphrodite rose from the waves, and indulges in a great deal of very charming and evidently irresponsible rhetoric. Our author, however, coming afterwards, declares that the two stones which, according to Von Hammer, belonged to the port, were a part of the temple. He takes it for granted that a building there would be "the temple," whereas Von Hammer invented the notion of the temple, and also that of the stopping of the procession there. Strabo tells of the procession and of the great temple at Old Paphos, but not a word of the stop at the bottom of the hill nor of a temple there. Therefore a much more definite description of the two "fabrics," which General di Cesnola says he discovered, is desirable before any one can be expected to believe that in antiquity there was anything on the spot of greater religious importance than a farm and an oil mill.

And now, for the last time, I will find further fault with this very misguiding eighth chapter. Once upon page 214, and again upon the following page, General di Cesnola mentions the river Bocarus. I cannot sympathize with the false modesty which prompts our author to say "the river Bocarus, now called by another name." The modern name of the small stream that flows at the bottom of the hill is the Diarrhizos. It is all the more necessary to use this modern name since the name Bocarus has no connection with any river or anything else upon the island of Cyprus. It is the only river name, preserved from antiquity, which undoubtedly belongs in the island of Salamis off the coast of Attica. All the maps, and nearly all modern reference books, are in error on this small geographical point; therefore, General di Cesnola errs here in a numerous and goodly company. I said that he repeated all the errors of Von Hammer, but this is not true in respect of the modern name of this river. Von Hammer misspells it "Dyarizos," and gives a grotesquely false derivation. This encourages him to believe that on going up the hill to Old Paphos he heard the murmuring of two brooks, which are not there; and behold! the sound of rushing waters is added to the many decorative fictions with which he furnishes forth the ancient precinct and the temple of Paphian Aphrodite. Engel follows Von Hammer here, but, with an uneasiness which does honor to his

insight, endeavors to prove the existence of these two never-failing, ever-murmuring, non-existent brooks by a most laughably irrelevant quotation from Ioannes Cameniata. As M. de Mas-Latrie has most truly said, Engel did not add much to our knowledge of the ancient geography of Cyprus. That has remained stationary, or nearly so, since the 28th of May, 1762, when D'Anville presented to the French Academy his Greco-Venetian map of the island, with comments which have formed ever since the basis of the distribution of ancient names in Cyprus. One mistake, unavoidable in 1762—it appears on D'Anville's map, but is very plausibly veiled in his comments—is the lumping together of the highest mountain in Cyprus, Troodos, which lies northeast of the site of Old Paphos, and of Mt. Santa Croce or Stavrovuni, which lies almost east of the same site. This last height seems to the passer-by the highest mountain in the island. Strabo undoubtedly called it Mount Olympus, and knew nothing of the Troodos.

Of the river Bocarus and the comedy of dry-as-dust errors which led to its importation into Cypriot topography, and also of the goodly company of mountains named Olympus on various maps of Cyprus, I shall treat at length elsewhere. It is enough to say here that General di Cesnola forgets the not inconsiderable heights beginning on Cape Arnaut (Acamas), which lies northwest of Kouklia, when he says: "East of Kouklia commences that range of lofty mountains, the highest of which, now called Troodos, was known as Mount Olympus." He also forgets that Mt. Troodos was not known to the ancient geographers who speak of Cyprus.

In closing our author's book at the end of chapter the eighth, I may surely say with some justification that I wish this chapter had never been written. It is possible, though I fear it is not made probable by what is to be found in the other chapters of 'Cyprus,' that, had General di Cesnola mistrusted his own observation less, had he been less prone to see upon the site of Old Paphos what Von Hammer and Engel invited him to see, had he dilated with his own emotions exclusively, he might have come nearer to the truth. Far from it he certainly would still have remained in any case, since he never saw the temple at all, but left it as he found it, buried under many tons of earth.

In closing, an expression of gratitude to friends at Kouklia is certainly called for. Without the kind and generously afforded assistance which they, who had lived upon the site for months, extended, I should never have been able in three days to declare my independence, or to prepare at any time the long catalogue of errors just given. Without them I never could have helped others towards the hidden truth about the hidden shrine of Aphrodite at Old Paphos. I speak advisedly, since the shrine is still hidden, and will be until full publication of all the researches which were ended at the beginning of last May, and which began last January. Much as I owe to the kindness of others, I would not make any one responsible for what I have just said excepting myself alone. I trust that I have said nothing of moment which the coming numbers of the *Hellenic Journal* will not substantiate; and my confidence is based upon the care with which I studied the remains at Old Paphos during the last three days that excavations were there in progress. I had the pleasure of being present when the last Greek inscription was added to the wonderful store which has rewarded the labors of nearly half a year. The last of a number of Cypriot inscriptions was also found during my stay at Kouklia.

While I have been writing, the memories of

kindness received at every turn during my tour in Cyprus have been constantly recurring. And now they are so vivid that I am sure of but one thing: I know that those who have never been in Cyprus will hardly get from my words a picture of the warmth of welcome which there awaits the traveller. Again and again I am tempted to rejoice at the absence of hotels, which procured me such a heart-warming experience, and the near acquaintance of those who must otherwise have been strangers. I but add my testimony to that of Professor Sayce, and of many others who have known the almost more than English hospitality of the English in Cyprus.

Finally, I recommend all classical scholars in search of unsolved problems in history, topography, and archaeology to betake themselves to Cyprus; but let them make haste. There are those now there who will soon have all these questions solved. L. D.

## Correspondence.

### MR. GOLDWIN SMITH ON THE MISERY OF LONDON.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: On my return home after a long absence, I have seen the notice of my 'Trip to England' in your number of August 2. You say, "knowing something of Mr. Goldwin Smith's reputation, they (the readers of the book) will be prepared to find in it a certain amount of curious doctrine, both social and political. . . . They will not be very much surprised to find him making light of the terrible misery of London, on the ground that it has been exaggerated for the purposes of literary sensation." It is here implied not only that I have made light of terrible misery, but that to do this is characteristic of me. I will beg permission to quote the entire passage, a sentence of which, it will be seen, is here misquoted, and will leave your readers to judge whether the imputation is well founded:

"Everybody has something to say about the painful contrast between the extremes of wealth and poverty in London; and people from new countries, where the pressure on the means of subsistence is as yet comparatively little felt, are very apt to turn up their hands and eyes, and thank heaven that they are not as those English. *Painful the contrast is, and hideous some of the low quarters of London are, above all at night, when the fatal gin-palaces flare, and round them gather sickly and ragged forms coming to barter perhaps the last garment or the bread of to-morrow for an hour of excitement and oblivion.* But in the first place we must remember, that *pictures of London misery have been sought out and presented in the most glaring colors for the purposes of literary sensation.* In the second place, we must remember, that among five millions there is inevitably much distress, caused not only by want, but by disease, intemperance, crime, and accidents, for which the community is not to blame. In the third place, we must remember, the great immigration of needy, or worse than needy, foreigners already mentioned. Charity, we find on inquiry, is active; often in those crowded and noisome alleys we shall meet its gentle ministers, and we shall be told that they pass safely on their mission even through the worst haunts of crime. Nor does the number of the destitute and suffering after all bear any proportion to the number of those for whom the great city provides a livelihood, and who are living in decency and comfort, with all the opportunities of domestic happiness and all the appliances of the most advanced civilization. The misery of London is more repulsive than that of some other cities in its aspect, partly on account of the dinginess produced by the smoke, partly because it is crowded into such close quarters. The streets being, like those of ancient cities generally, too narrow and crooked for street railways, the people are compelled

to live close to the centres of employment, especially to the docks. *Still, when all allowances have been made, the bad quarters of London are a sad sight, and one which it may be morally useful to Dives amidst his purple and fine linen to have seen. They are sources of social and political danger, too, as recent outbreaks of their squalid turbulence have proved. They are the English Faubourg St.-Antoine.*" (P. 46.)

The italics, of course, are not in the book.

Your obedient servant, GOLDWIN SMITH,  
TORONTO, September 4, 1888.

#### REPUBLICAN INTOLERANCE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: One can easily understand how powerfully the intelligent and cultured classes of the North were drawn towards the Republican party in its younger days. To a believer in personal and political freedom, it undoubtedly did present attractions which were not to be found elsewhere. If that character had been maintained, it would no doubt be as strong in the intellectual centres of the country now as it was in days gone by. But instead of this, we find the Republican managers of to-day not only appealing directly to ignorance and prejudice for support, but even resorting to the most contemptible methods imaginable to suppress intelligent discussion.

A new illustration of this fact has recently come within the knowledge of the writer. In Denison University, the Baptist College of Ohio, R. S. Colwell, Professor of Greek, has been teaching political economy for some years. Though originally a protectionist, careful study of the subject convinced him that he was wrong, and brought him to the other side. Since the present campaign seemed to him to involve no other issue of so great importance as the tariff question, he naturally concluded to support the principles in which he believes, and, at the earnest request of a great many citizens, has made a few speeches in favor of tariff reform. Not being able to meet his arguments, the Newark *American*, the Republican county organ, manifested its chagrin in a personal attack so full of impotent abuse and bad English as to disgust the better class of Republicans as well as Democrats.

The editor of the *Granville Times*, the only other Republican paper in the community, at first resented such tactics, as calculated to make it impossible for an educated man to belong to the party; but the bulldozing element of the party seems to have suppressed his better judgment, for he is now engaged in the attempt to silence the Professor by inducing Republicans to boycott the College. As is usual in such cases, this petty persecution bids fair to defeat its own end. Republicans who have accepted high tariff as a party principle, without much reflection, are beginning to raise the question whether a doctrine which needs such methods of defence can be worth defending.

#### CAMPAIGN LYING.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: A daily paper has remarked within a few days, that "The Republican organs, that is, the honest ones, are slowly and painfully taking back the claim that the *London Times* ever said" a certain widely quoted thing, namely, that "The only use England has for an Irishman is when he emigrates to the United States, and votes for free trade." Whether or not the *North American Review* wishes itself to be classed among the "honest" Republican organs, or not, we cannot say. Certainly, however, the astonished reader who finds the

above spurious citation in the September number of this *Review*, as the basis of five extended "Irish comments on an English text," can hardly be blamed for doubting its non-partisan character. The same number, it is true, contains an article on the other side, to which no other signature than "A Democrat" is appended.

It is not, however, to the giving place to the statement of opposing views that objection may be fairly taken; the motto, "Tros Tyrusve mihi nullo discrimine agetur" (almost the sole relic of the *Review* in the days when Felton, Bowen, and Hillard gave it its tone), could be appealed to as warrant for that. But the printing of the "text" above cited, which even the daily newspapers are tardily abandoning, is a painfully discreditable performance. It is, moreover, not very edifying to find, among the five signers to these "Comments," the name of one college professor, albeit he is the one duly engaged on the Wharton Foundation to teach a certain definite dogma.

CIVIS.

#### MR. EDWARD ATKINSON'S REPORT ON BIMETALLISM.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I have reason to know that my report on bimetalism in Europe is much valued by teachers and students in political economy as a book of reference, for the reason that the greater part of the volume is taken up by Taussig's admirable translation of Soetbeer's 'Materialien,' and the reports of leading geologists and mining engineers on the production of gold and silver.

I have a large number of copies of this report at my disposal, and shall be glad to send one to any teacher or student or librarian who will send me his address with stamps for eight cents for the postage.

I make this offer at the suggestion of one of my friends who thought the pile of reports ought not to remain unused.

Yours very truly, EDWARD ATKINSON,  
Boston, September 8, 1888.

#### THE NEW FINE ART MUSEUM IN DETROIT.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: A brief account of the building and successful opening of the new Art Museum in Detroit may be of interest to your readers. In the fall of 1882 a plan was proposed for holding an art loan exhibition, which it was hoped might lead to the establishment of a permanent art museum. In September of the following year the exhibition opened with a collection of something more than a thousand paintings and water-colors, drawn chiefly from the private collections of this city and of Cleveland, with contributions from numerous art dealers and artists living at a greater distance. The success of the exhibition was not to be measured solely by the artistic merit of its paintings, although this was considerably above the average of such collections. The attendance was large, over 134,000, and the influence of the exhibition, in quickening the interest of the public and in kindling the enthusiasm of a few art lovers, has been very great. Before the close of it the work of raising money for a permanent building was begun, and at the end of January, 1884, \$40,000 had been raised in subscriptions of \$1,000 each, the forty subscribers forming a corporation which has since increased its capital to \$100,000 and erected the present building. While this work was in progress, a second exhibition was held in the spring of 1886, smaller than the first, but of greater average merit

and equally successful. The result of the two exhibitions, and of the earnest and intelligent cooperation of the local newspapers, has been a widespread interest in the success of the undertaking, and the gradual education of the popular taste, I believe, to the point of really appreciating the fine collection which is presented to the public view in the opening of the new museum.

The building is a good example of late Romanesque architecture, substantial, fire-proof, and well adapted to its uses. There are already a few valuable paintings in the possession of the Museum—a "Marriage of St. Catharine," the gift of Pope Leo XIII.; a "Martyrdom of St. Andrew" by Murillo; a Claude Lorraine; Rembrandt Peale's "Court of Death," and several modern paintings of some merit. It was thought best to supplement these at the opening by a new loan exhibition of choice works, and Mr. George I. Seney of New York kindly allowed the use of a hundred of the most valuable paintings of his collection, and these, with fifty or sixty additional works from private galleries in this city, form a fairly representative exhibition of the work of that group of modern French artists whose influence dominates the art of our day—Corot, Daubigny, Dupré, Diaz, Rousseau, Decamps, Troyon, and their successors, Breton, Benj. Constant, Alfred Stevens, and others. Only the three masters, Millet, Gérôme, and Meissonier, are wanting, but their influence is present in the work of their pupils.

Some notion of German art may be gleaned from Achenbach, Knauts, Meyer von Bremen, Gabriel Max, and Munkacsy, who are represented, while Israels and Chays, Wahlberg and Salmson, Villegas and Escosura, Boughton and Burgess, Inness and George Fuller, give glimpses of what has been done in other parts of the world. Yet it remains an exhibition of modern French art, and such an exhibition as has rarely been seen in the West, and its opening is therefore an event of more than local importance.

The intelligent efforts and generous enthusiasm of the forty "immortals" who have provided us with this feast deserve great praise, and the example of an art museum founded and sustained by the cooperation of a number of people of moderate wealth may be an inspiration to some of the larger cities, which are waiting for a millionaire to die and leave such an institution founded as a monument to his memory.

WM. W. HINSON.

DETROIT, Mich., September 7, 1888.

#### Notes.

HARPER & BROS. publish directly 'Peninsular California,' by Charles Nordhoff, handsomely illustrated; 'The Land Beyond the Forest (Transylvania),' by Mme. E. Gerard; and a fifth number of the 'Franklin Square Song Collection.'

Ticknor & Co.'s fall announcements include 'Four Years with the Army of the Potomac,' by Gen. Regis De Trobriand; 'A Short History of the Secession War,' by Rosster Johnson; 'The Other Side of War,' being letters from the headquarters of the U. S. Sanitary Commission with the Army of the Potomac, campaign of 1862, by Miss Kate P. Wormeley; 'Pen and Powder,' by Franc B. Wilkie of the *Chicago Times*; 'Songs and Ballads of the Old Plantation,' by Joel Chandler Harris and Eli Shephard; three quarto illustrated editions of the popular songs "Marching through Georgia," "Nelly was a Lady," and



"Massa's in the Cold, Cold Ground"; Tennyson's 'Dream of Fair Women,' illustrated; 'Letters of Felix Mendelssohn to Ignaz and Charlotte Moscheles,' translated and edited by Felix Moscheles; a new volume of Essays by the late E. P. Whipple; 'Stories and Sketches,' by John Boyle O'Reilly; 'A Man Story,' by E. W. Howe; 'Steadfast,' by Rose Terry Cooke; 'Safe Building,' by Louis De Coppet Berg; and 'Ancient and Modern Lighthouses,' fully illustrated, by Major D. P. Heap.

The late Lester Wallack's "Memories of the Last Fifty Years" will appear in the October *Scribner's*.

G. P. Putnam's Sons have reissued in a neat and compact form, for popular sale, the ninth volume of Mr. Henry Cabot Lodge's edition of the works of Alexander Hamilton. This contains the 'Federalist.' The sole difference in the two issues is the omission of the irrelevant table of errata for the first eight volumes, and the list of omitted letters.

With the text of the late Helen Jackson's 'The Procession of Flowers in Colorado' our readers are doubtless familiar, and they will recall with pleasure the vividness of the coloring and the faithfulness of the sketch. But magazine articles are ephemeral, and, after their short lives, usually sink into the incomplete but grateful oblivion of 'Poole's Index to Periodical Literature.' The experiment of testing somewhat further their hold upon life by subjecting them to the ordeal of republication, is always an anxious one. No author, however, could reasonably ask to have the task of republication intrusted to more loving and judicious hands than those which have endeavored to preserve this work by "H. H." in the form in which it comes to us from Roberts Bros., Boston. Twelve water-color drawings of a high degree of merit, by Miss Alice A. Stewart, have been placed by hand as marginal decorations on the generous pages in each copy of the limited edition. All of them are easily recognizable as the more attractive of the Colorado flowers described in the text, and all, with possibly one exception, have been drawn from specimens which a botanist would regard as characteristic. The heavy paper, good printing, and elegant binding harmonize completely with the text and the delineations.

As population and manufactures grow, so does the resulting material refuse augment, and its disposal becomes an ever-increasing problem for the sanitary engineer. The unsuccessful efforts at its solution are numerous, and the failures are costly, both in money and health. The latest and perhaps the best general discussion of it is Mr. J. W. Slater's 'Sewage Treatment, Purification, and Utilization' (London: Whittaker & Co.; New York: D. Van Nostrand), which, although written with special reference to British conditions, sets forth general principles that are applicable elsewhere under similar conditions. The author writes as an expert of twenty years' experience, and very wisely concludes "that there is no one process universally applicable." The volume discusses all recognized methods intelligently and with apparent fairness, though with decidedly expressed opinions, and we recommend it to an honorable place in the sanitarian's library.

Of theatrical autobiographies there is never any dearth, but just now the great success of 'Mr. and Mrs. Bancroft On and Off the Stage' has greatly stimulated their production in England. Two of the most recent are little pamphlets sketching the careers of two of the comic songsters or entertainers of London—'Corney Grain, by Himself' (London: John Murray),

and 'A Society Clown,' by George Grossmith (Bristol: J. W. Arrowsmith). Both Mr. Grain and Mr. Grossmith are pleasantly innocent in their frank autobiographies, and inoffensively interested in themselves. Mr. Grain is a partner in the German Reed show, and Mr. Grossmith is the original *Sir Joseph Porter* and *Koko* in the Gilbert and Sullivan operettas; but both performers give entertainments in private houses—a regular business in London, where a dull society has to hire its amusers. To a cynical critic the chapters in which these gentlemen describe their relations to the society they delight, and their own adventures and misadventures therein, are much the most entertaining. Not a few of their little anecdotes a social observer might find typical. To the future historian of the English stage—if such a being shall ever exist—Mr. Grossmith's chapter on the rehearsing and performing of the Gilbert and Sullivan operettas will be useful.

M. Edouard Rod will be remembered as the author of an extremely sombre and pessimistic book which appeared some years ago under the title 'La Course à la Mort,' and which showed much ability. The author is still a young man, about thirty, and for several years has been Professor of Comparative Literature in the University of Geneva, and life now seems to have a healthy interest for him—at least in its literary aspects. He has collected some of his more recent papers into a volume: 'Études sur le dix-neuvième siècle—Giacomo Leopardi' (Paris: Perrin; Boston: Schoenhof). The article upon Leopardi is, however, only one among nearly a dozen which make up the volume; some of the more attractive of the others being "Les Véristes italiens," "Richard Wagner et l'Esthétique allemande," and "Les Préraphaélites anglais."

The more noteworthy articles in the June and July numbers of the *Centralblatt für Bibliothekswesen* include a contribution to the Gutenberg-Coster controversy by A. Wyss, who disputes the conclusions of Hessels, and points out some of the weak places in the arguments of the Costerians; a note by J. Gildemeister, giving references to some Oriental works in which mention is made of the discovery of America; an article by Dr. Falk on the probable author of the colophon in the Catholicon of 1460, which is generally ascribed to Gutenberg, but which he believes was written by Conrad Humery; and a useful descriptive summary of the principal bibliographical works published in Belgium in 1887. The August number contains the first instalment of a full and interesting account of the discovery, by G. Merula, in 1494, of some twenty-five classical manuscripts in the Benedictine monastery of Bobbio.

The June number of the *Export Journal* (Leipzig) completes the first year of this polyglot "International Circular for the Book, Paper, and Printing Trades"; and Mr. Hedeler, the editor and publisher, deserves a word of commendation for the skill with which he has given fresh interest to each successive number, and a reference value to the yearly volume. Among the contents of more than temporary interest and value, may be mentioned the recent tariffs of Italy, Rumania, and the several British colonies of Australasia; the full text, in French, German, and English, of the International Copyright Union; and much information concerning the international (Smithsonian) exchange of books, by P. F. Richter, an intelligent and industrious librarian in the Royal Library at Dresden. Also, descriptive accounts of the publishing houses of Brockhaus, Baron Tauchnitz (Leipzig), Kröner Brothers (Stuttgart), Quantin (Paris), Sampson Low, and the Bible Society (London), Ri-

cordi, and Hoepli (Milan), and two United States firms, Benziger & Co. and L. Prang & Co.

A Pottery and Porcelain Exhibition, with a competition for American workmen, will be opened by the Trustees of the Pennsylvania Museum and School of Industrial Art in Memorial Hall, Fairmount Park, Philadelphia, on October 16, closing on November 13. This is intended to be the first of an annual series of competitive exhibitions, taking up in turn all the various art industries. The Trustees have a yearly income of about \$1,000, derived from a fund given by the late Joseph C. Temple for this purpose. For particulars the Secretary should be addressed at Memorial Hall. The enterprise seems in every way laudable.

—Mr. Mallock gives us, in his essay on Cyprus in *Scribner's* for September, a pretty illustration of the strong hold that a plausible error has on popular belief. There has been, he says, a general destruction of the forests in Cyprus, and, as a consequence, there has been "a great diminution of the rainfall." It is hardly likely that Mr. Mallock has studied with any care the mooted question involved in this unhesitating assertion; indeed, he may not know that it is in discussion among specialists in forestry and meteorology. Yet the relation of cause and effect is stated in his entertaining story with as much confidence as if it were a matter of direct record, like the destruction of the Abbey of Bella Pais by the Turks. Now, as soon as one begins to examine this matter, he will find that the diminution of rainfall as a consequence of forest-cutting in the countries around the Mediterranean is not proved by any valid line of argument. The possibility of the reverse relation does not seem to enter the popular mind; the desire to find an immediate cause for any suspected effect is too strong to be satisfied with remote and slow processes. But it is certainly possible that a decrease of rainfall consequent on a change in natural and widespread conditions could prevent the natural reforestation of a region from which the trees are cut off. May not this be the case in Cyprus? As to the "great diminution of the rainfall," this is pure imagination. There has doubtless been some decrease, for the geologic evidence of gradual desiccation is almost universal; but there is no evidence to show that the rainfall of the Mediterranean region was much greater than now in historic times. The best studies of the physical conditions of Greece in the classic period fail to discover that it was then a rainy country; as long as the country has been known it has had its droughts, and it has needed careful cultivation to secure good returns. When Cyprus was a power in the world, and gathered tribute from foreign nations to make good its natural deficiencies, it must have been a thrifty island; but, with the loss of power, there has been a steady decay of thrift. It is a difficult matter to manage a farm in a dry region. The farmer must be undisturbed in his work, and must have a good market near at hand; then let him but keep his irrigating canals in good repair, and, with a moderate rainfall, he will transform a dusty country into a garden. Cut down the forests, and the streams rise in freshets with every shower, and run dry in fair weather. The freshets wash out breaches in the canals, and the water is wasted. Barbarous invaders are as destructive as floods.

—The Report of the Factory Inspectors of the State of New York for the year 1887 contains a brief account of the proceedings of those officers and a large quantity of padding. Some twenty-five pages are devoted to an essay



upon the injury to health caused by the dust generated in the various manufactures—taken, apparently, from the Report of the Board of Health, and relating to matters wholly outside of the duties of the factory inspector. Nearly as many more are occupied with a detailed account of the addresses and proceedings at a meeting of factory inspectors held at Philadelphia, which was not attended by the inspectors of this State. Over a hundred pages are filled with extracts from the statute books of other States, American and European, bearing upon the regulation of factory labor. The sixty pages of tables are merely office memoranda, and their meaning could have been given in a few lines. We call this matter padding, not because it might not have value in the hands of a commission appointed to report upon the regulation of factory labor, but because our factory inspectors are not competent to deal with such a subject. If intelligent and upright men can be obtained who will report what they have seen and done, and not attempt to make out a general policy of legislation, their reports upon our factories will have value. But while appointments are made as at present in this State, it cannot be expected that the suggestions of office holders should command attention. Our factory inspector is not required by his position to devise a system of public education, and, judging from his report, he does not seem to be personally qualified to do so. So far as it is possible to judge of the work done by the inspectors from this record, we should say that it was of considerable value in causing the erection of fire escapes, in compelling regard to decency, and in restricting the employment of young children. But the insolent tone in which some of the inspectors refer to their success in compelling manufacturers to adopt their interpretation of the law, shows how much the success of paternal legislation depends upon the character of those who carry it out.

—The tenth volume of the Proceedings of the Royal Library at Stockholm (*Kongl. Bibliotekets Handlingar*) contains the report of the Librarian, Dr. G. E. Klemming, and volume 2, for 1887, of the 'Accessions-Katalog.' This important library, the Riks-Bibliotek, or National Library of Sweden, was removed in the fall of 1877 from the Royal Palace to the most modern library structure in Scandinavia, a fine building beautifully situated in "Humlegården," an old park of considerable extent. It contained at that time about 200,000 volumes, besides a great many pamphlets, considerable collections of maps and engravings, and nearly 8,000 manuscripts. This library, which aims to contain as complete a collection as possible of Swedish literature, supplemented by the more important scientific and literary works published in foreign countries, is, by royal decree of November 9, 1877, divided into two chief divisions—the Swedish and the foreign. Of the accessions for 1887, according to the Report, 12,791 numbers (books, pamphlets, periodicals, maps, etc.) belonged to the first division, while to the foreign department 879 distinct works were added, consisting of 1,055 volumes and parts of volumes, and 264 pamphlets. The Swedish or finance relating to the freedom of the press requires that a copy of everything printed in Sweden shall be sent to each of the two university libraries and to the library at Stockholm, and the officers of the latter institution are taking active measures to see that this deposit, so far as their library is concerned, is complete for each year. The Librarian reports that for 1886 nearly everything has been received, and he furnishes a ta-

ble classifying the products of the printing-press of the country for that year. From this we learn that 524 new books were published in 862 volumes, and 664 works in process of publication were continued in 1,392 volumes or parts, while 6,281 pamphlets of less than 100 pages were printed. These figures do not include magazines and newspapers, of which there were 547 in course of publication during the year, 361 being new. As regards the subjects of the new books, fiction leads with 91 new novels, theology following with 81 new works, while 40 books were devoted to education, 35 belonged in the class of political literature, and there were 25 biographies and 21 philological works.

—The list of accessions is an interesting experiment in cooperative cataloguing. Besides the Royal Library, Sweden possesses three others of importance—the university libraries at Lund and Uppsala, and the library of the Royal Swedish Academy, the last containing the largest collection of books relating to the natural sciences in Sweden. There are, in addition, others of considerable size devoted to special literatures. But none of these, excepting the University library at Uppsala, since 1856 and the library of the University at Lund since 1854, have published lists of their accessions, and need was felt of some ready means of ascertaining, more especially, what new foreign literature was received at these various institutions. In 1886, therefore, an effort was made to secure through cooperation the preparation and publication of an annual catalogue which should indicate the books received at each of the more important libraries in the country. After some preliminary conferences a plan was formulated and carried into effect, and early in 1887 the first volume was published by the Royal Library, edited by one of its officers, Mr. Erik Wilhelm Daldgren, containing the titles of all the books printed outside of Sweden which were received during 1886 at seven libraries, viz., the four already named, and the libraries of the Medical Surgical Institute of Stockholm, the Academy of Belles-lettres, History and Antiquities, and the General Staff of the Army. The second volume, for 1887, which is contained in the *Handlingar* recently published, and is also issued separately within its own covers, is prepared upon the same general plan, but, in addition to the seven libraries represented in volume one, eight others are included, among them the library of the Swedish Parliament, and the libraries of two art institutions at Stockholm. While this publication is without doubt useful in Sweden, its value abroad would be greatly increased by the inclusion of books printed in that country. An annual catalogue of Swedish literature, published by authority, would be very valuable, not only for present use, but for future reference. The Royal Library, whose Swedish division is almost perfect, is well equipped for the production of a work similar to the annual catalogue of Norwegian books issued by the University of Norway, and it would be an act of graceful liberality upon the part of the Swedish Government, and but a well-deserved recognition of Mr. Daldgren's competent services, if such annual appropriations were made for this work as would enable him to include each year the titles of all publications produced in Sweden.

—Among the accessions for 1887 we note an item of more than passing interest to Americans—namely, seventy-eight volumes printed in the United States in the Swedish language. These chiefly supplement the collection of Swedish periodicals published in this country made by Prof. T. N. Hasselquist of Augustana Col-

lege, Rock Island, Ill., and now preserved in the Royal Library. A catalogue, *Svenska Tidningar och Tidskrifter utgifna inom Nord-Amerikas Förenta Stater* (Bibliografisk översigt af Bernhard (Wilhelm) Lundstedt) was published in 1886, at which time the collection numbered 195 journals. The titles of these are recorded in chronological order from 1851, when *Skandinavia* was issued in New York city, to 1886, and an index of places shows their geographical distribution over sixteen States and Territories. Chicago is indicated as the centre of Swedish journalism in this country, no less than fifty-three different newspapers having appeared there from 1856 to 1886, while other cities in Illinois have been places of publication for twenty-one more. In New York and Minnesota occurs the next highest number, twenty-three for each State. Fifty papers appearing in the two cities of St. Paul and Minneapolis, and sixteen having been published during thirty-five years in New York city. In 1872 a single newspaper in Sweden was published in Maine, and one was begun in Washington Territory in 1885. None seem to have appeared farther south than Missouri, there the being credited to that State. Mr. Lundstedt's work is most painstaking, each title being prepared with elaborate care, every detail of the slightest importance being given, including the subscription price. The size of the printed page of each paper is stated in centimetres. At the end is a list of left margins, and should any one possessing copies of Swedish American papers be willing to spare them to complete this unique collection, they may address Professor Hasselquist, or Mr. Lundstedt, Royal Library, Stockholm.

Notwithstanding the Scotch prisoners sent by Cromwell to Boston, and the Huguenots who took refuge there, New England, in the judgment of Feltree, was pronounced homogeneous and English, in fact, a new England. Feltree, of an early race prejudice may be gathered in the State House archives in Boston. Some of them have never been printed. The following quaint sentence chronicles a jealousy of the Irish, and also shows the custom of persons selling themselves to pay their passage. It is from the report of a "Committee appointed by the General Court of the Colony of Massachusetts to consider proposals for the public benefit." Its date is October 23, 1654, and the signers were Daniel Gookin, Thomas Savage, Roger Claps, Richard Russell, and Francis Norton:

"This Court considering y<sup>e</sup> Cruel and malignant Spirit y<sup>e</sup> have from tyme to tyme byn manifest in y<sup>e</sup> Irish Nation against y<sup>e</sup> English Nation doe hereby declare thye prohibition of any Irish men women or children into this Jurisdiction on the penalty of fifty pounds sterling to each Inhabitant y<sup>e</sup> shall buy off any merchant, ship or other agent any such person or persons so transported by y<sup>e</sup> w<sup>ch</sup> fine shall be by the Cntries marshall on conviction off some magistrate or Court lawfull and be to the use of y<sup>e</sup> Informer one third and two thirds to y<sup>e</sup> Cntry. This act to bee in force six months after publication of this order."

#### GEORGE PERKINS MARSH.

*Life and Letters of George Perkins Marsh.* Compiled by Caroline Crane Marsh. In two volumes. Vol. I. Charles Scribner's Sons, 1888.

'THE Life and Letters of George Perkins Marsh' takes us back to the beginning of this century. He was born in 1801, very near the time when Daniel Webster came to Woodstock to study law with Mr. Marsh's father, who had, three or four years before, been appointed United States District Attorney by General

Washington. He was born into one of the best of the professional families which then dominated New England. Leaders in all the learned professions were among his kinsfolk. His cousin, James Marsh, was President of the University of Vermont, and a leader of American thought in the exploration of German philosophy as interpreted by Coleridge. George P. Marsh was the flower of the family. When he was appointed Minister to Italy in 1861, he was the most eminent of American scholars, and one of the most eminent of American statesmen, and he remained at that post for twenty-one fruitful and honorable years. Writers of twenty or thirty years ago generally designate him as a philologist, the new 'Cyclopædia of American Biography' designates him as a diplomatist, and in both characters he deserves a memorial volume.

The present volume is due to the pious labors of his wife, and it deals most with his personal character, his growth and life as a man. The first part is the most interesting. He was a universal genius, it seems. The author narrates with classic simplicity and clearness anecdotes which show his early love for nature, the plastic arts, music, mechanics, languages, books, science. He was very fond of working with tools and watching workmen, but his great delight was, like Macaulay's, to lie on his elbows and read a book. The 'Encyclopædia Britannica' was his favorite at the age of seven, and to have the undisturbed enjoyment of it he used to drag it under dark tables. Before he was observed he had ruined his eyes. He was not allowed to read freely again till he was eleven, and he had to use glasses all the rest of his life. Meantime, he had made remarkable development in hearing. His passion for music was strong, his sensibility for the most delicate musical notes was quick, he knew the notes of all the birds; all loud or harsh sounds gave him acute physical pain—the sounds of church bells among the rest. He learned Latin and Greek *à la carte*, his brothers reading them to him. In this way the habits were acquired which made him so remarkable a linguist. He could speak any language as soon as he could read it fluently. When he heard a language spoken by natives, he always joined in the conversation, and showed as wonderful power of reproducing vocal sounds as of catching them.

He entered Dartmouth College in 1816. He had been a few months at Phillips Academy, Andover, in 1815, but his father said he never knew how or when George prepared for college. He passed in with credit. That might well be; his father was a trustee, and the Marsh boys were well known in Hanover; an elder brother had lately graduated with the highest honors. But he was at once recognized by his classmates as a prodigy of scholarship, and next to Rufus Choate, who was two classes before him, and unapproachable in brilliancy, he was the hero of his day in college. He handled the mathematics like a Newton, read immensely in Greek and Latin, "read the Greek poets and historians with as much ease as an ordinary man would read a newspaper," plunged into Italian, Spanish, Portuguese, French, German; and yet it is said that he never spoke of his college life in after years except to blame himself for wasted time, or to praise Choate or some other fellow-student. After graduating at the head of his class, he taught school a while, in the old New England fashion, like John Adams, and Daniel Webster, and Rufus Choate, and the rest. Choate was a college tutor. But Marsh was a failure; he soon had enough of teaching to last him through life. Long afterwards he was offered profes-

sorships at Harvard and elsewhere, but he was not to be tempted. "What can I say more?" he writes in 1859. "I hate boys, hate tuition, hate forms, and possess only one qualification for the place, namely, poverty."

He studied law and practised for about twenty years. In 1843 he was elected a representative in the Congress of the United States. These twenty years were the fruitful period of his philological life. He very early became interested in the northern races from whom the English are descended, and applied himself to the study of their languages and literature and antiquities. In 1832 (1832-1834) he was in frequent correspondence with Prof. Rafn of the University of Copenhagen, writing indifferently in English and Danish. In 1838 he printed an Icelandic grammar. He collected the rarest books in these northern languages and read them. He also wrote articles about them, and delivered orations—or, at least, an oration, a great one, delivered before the Philomathesian Society of Middlebury, Vermont, in 1843. At that time these languages and literatures, the Anglo-Saxon and Icelandic, were as remote from common scholarly knowledge as Algonkin or Choctaw. The swarm of German scholars had not yet lighted upon them. Grimm's knowledge of 'Beowulf' was talked of much as Mr. Trumbull's knowledge of Eliot's Bible is now. Four or five Englishmen were working with Grimm or after him. The Kembles were lamenting that John Mitchell Kemble was nothing better than the chief of Anglo-Saxonists in England. No one of them was to be compared for a moment with Mr. Marsh in general mental vigor or special linguistic genius. His published works are eminently fresh and original, not professorial, not of any school, not discussions of other students' views, but clear statements of what he saw with his own eyes in his own copies of the original works, with the comments of an American thinker. His 'Lectures on the English Language,' delivered before the post-graduates of Columbia College in 1859, and 'Lectures on the Origin and History of the English Language and Its Early Literature,' delivered before the Lowell Institute in 1860, were almost extemporaneous utterances from the stores of his earlier studies, but they were everywhere recognized as the best books of their kind, and they are still counted among the books which no gentleman's library can be without. Philologists, who have been in the habit of thinking of Mr. Marsh mainly as the chief of the American scholars of his time, may be disappointed to find that the life and letters have the briefest reference to his linguistic life. No part of his philological correspondence is given, and apparently little of it has been recovered. He never kept a journal, and seldom talked about his past. He had conscientious scruples about it, it seems; so that the data for a biography as a mental record are very scanty. We have to thank the memory of the accomplished friend who shared his hours of study for such record as is preserved.

Mr. Marsh was a member of the House of Representatives from 1843 to 1849, the time of the annexation of Texas, the Mexican war, and the organization of the Smithsonian Institution. We get a lively picture of the life at Washington in those days, with many interesting anecdotes. One is worth copying. An English friend inquired of Mr. Marsh "how much his Congressional elections had cost him." His answer was, "Not so much as a glass of wine. I never asked a man to my house for the sake of his vote, nor, so far as I can now remember, did I ever do any man any service with that end in view. In my State such things are not necessary." In 1849 Mr. Marsh was

appointed Minister to Turkey. He returned to America in 1854. Half the volume is occupied with letters of this period. Kossuth and Koszta figure in it, and sketches of life in Constantinople and Athens, and of travels in Egypt and Palestine and Europe.

The rest of this first volume is devoted to the eight following years of Presidents Pierce and Buchanan, and closes with Mr. Marsh's appointment, by President Lincoln, as Minister to Italy in 1861. He had declined a Senatorship from Vermont, and other inviting positions, under the compulsion of pecuniary embarrassment. He had in his early life engaged in building up a village of woollen factories. Changes in the tariff had ruined him; after a struggle of many years, he finally gave up all his property to his creditors, and "at the age of fifty-nine began the world with a debt of ten thousand dollars in good new notes, and not a shilling to pay it with." He put all his talents to the exchangers, wrote for the periodicals, delivered lectures. He did not succeed as a popular lecturer. He spoke quietly and rapidly, and spoke close-packed sense—most likely, also, a good many long words.

Most men of any size have different aspects from the spear side and the spindle side. This book is a spindle-side view of Mr. Marsh. He was a big, vehement, masterful man among men, full of vitality and good cheer, and a certain ponderous wit or humor. But no man was tenderer towards woman. Reverence for woman was common to the Puritans of New England, and with good reason. It was a marked trait of the Marshes, and strongly accented in George P. Marsh. As a child, he "manifested a strong predilection for the companionship of girls rather than of boys"; in later life "he invariably shunned gentlemen's parties"; his letters are written to ladies by preference. He finds it easier to write to them, he says, even when he means the letters for their husbands. His public addresses abound in eloquent paragraphs in their honor. His wife he made his inseparable companion. Through the largest part of this book she is spoken of as unable to walk or stand, but means are found to take her over the continents, through galleries of art, through deserts, up mountain peaks supposed to be inaccessible, the strong arms of her husband being always ready. His biography is in one sense her reminiscences, and it is none the less charming for that. In one respect, however, it is a painful book. Mr. Marsh's suffering from the sickness and death of his kinsfolk and friends is so acute and so frequent as to make one feel as though woe were always impending.

Mr. Marsh was always an early riser. His working time was between five and nine in the morning. He struck an average when he was a lawyer by sleeping in his office while his partner listened to bores; in the House of Representatives it was a standing pleasantry to predict when J. Q. Adams and G. P. Marsh would go to sleep. He read as fast as another man would turn the leaves of a book, and his habit was to begin in the middle and read both ways. He read many books at once, changing from one to another every hour or so. In his familiar letters he is much of a polyglot, and a punster, of course. He sends Mr. Baird "some, bestimi I suppose, that *hibernate* in summer. It's a real hibernicism, isn't it?" A great many letters, by the way, are to Mr. Baird of the Smithsonian—letters of friendship mainly, but filled with an amateur's talk about natural science, which is not Mr. Marsh's best aspect. He speaks of some one as thinking him strong in punctuation, and not wholly ignorant of Low Dutch, but in "science" a dummy. He was



not that. He was a true lover of nature. It was one of his favorite thoughts that this love naturally grows deeper and warmer in old age. His last great book is on man and nature—'The Earth as Modified by Human Action.'

A second volume is to tell the story of the twenty-one fruitful years which Mr. Marsh spent as Minister to Italy.

#### MEMORIALS OF ARCHBISHOP TRENCH.

*Richard Chenevix Trench, Archbishop: Letters and Memorials.* Edited by the author of 'Charles Lowder.' 2 vols. London: Kegan Paul, Trench & Co. 1888.

THESE "Letters and Memorials" are a very inadequate record of a man who was distinguished and remarkable in a variety of ways. Dr. Trench was a poet and a theologian; and as Archbishop of Dublin the difficult task devolved upon him of reconstituting the Anglican Church in Ireland after the passing of Mr. Gladstone's measure of disestablishment. Previous to his promotion to the Archiepiscopal see, he had been Dean of Westminster, and these ecclesiastical offices (conjointly with the position he occupied in the world of letters) brought him into contact with all that was most distinguished, intellectually or socially, in the England of his day. The biography of such a man would have been replete with interest, but the Archbishop, it appears, had laid an injunction upon his family—or had, at any rate, very emphatically expressed his desire—that after his death no record of his life should be given to the world. His widow has obeyed this injunction in the letter, though hardly in the spirit. The "Letters and Memorials" contained in the two volumes we are noticing do not profess to be a life of the Archbishop. They are only a selection from his correspondence and journals, with just so much of connecting narrative as to make their contents intelligible to the general reader. They constitute, in other words, a bad and imperfect biography. Far better would it have been, in our judgment, either absolutely to obey the wishes of the Archbishop or altogether to have disregarded them. The present work is a needless and unprofitable addition to that huge mass of printed matter purporting to be books, but which are such only in name and outward appearance, like Charles Lamb's backgammon boards.

The future Archbishop of Dublin was born in that city on September 5, 1807. He was, however, Irish only through the accident of his birth. His parents were of French extraction, and his life, until he became Archbishop, was almost wholly spent in England. For young men of thoughtful and imaginative temperaments, the England of the first forty years of this century must have been a highly stimulating atmosphere in which to live. It was a period of heroic achievements by sea and land, of a wonderful outbreak of genius at home. By the long and at last victorious struggle which Great Britain had maintained against the power of Napoleon, she had established for herself a foremost place among the nations; and, simultaneously with this, Byron, Shelley, Keats, Scott, Wordsworth, and Coleridge appeared in a constellation of genius second only to the brightness of the Elizabethan era. The effect of these occurrences upon the minds of Trench and his companions is discoverable in the youthful correspondence published in these volumes. In his university days at Cambridge he was one of a small society of young men nearly all of whom rose to eminence in after days. John Sterling, Arthur Hallam, Alfred Tennyson, Frederick Maurice, and Trench himself are the best known names among them.

Others were John Kemble, Spedding, Venables, Charles Buller, Richard Milnes. The most interesting portion of these "Memorials" consists of the letters which in these early days passed between Trench and his friends, Sterling, Maurice, Hallam, Kemble, and others. A devouring earnestness, a passion for reforming the world, are the characteristics common to each member of this group of friends. They feed their minds on the poetry of Wordsworth and the philosophy of Coleridge. They write at immense length to each other upon the state of their respective souls. They are filled with faith in the great possibilities shortly to emerge from the bosom of time. They are all champions of liberty and the enemies of tyranny, and in this double character the future Archbishop, together with other youthful and ardent spirits, actually sailed from England in company with a band of refugee Spanish patriots for the purpose of overthrowing the Spanish monarchy. He had a narrow escape from being shot—a fate which overtook every member of this unlucky party with the exception of Trench and Kemble. At the same time, he was as far as possible from being a revolutionist of the French destructive type.

"To me," he writes in 1831, shortly after his return from Spain, "it seems that an aristocracy is necessary as the representative of the continuity of the consciousness of a nation. Unless there be something in a country not embraced by the birth and death of the fleeting generation which at any moment may compose it, you may have a horde, you may have a sovereign people, but you cannot have a nation. If it be a nation, it must look before and after. This, as of an individual, is its highest humanity. And there is no way that we can be called off from the demands of the ever importunate present; there is no way of binding it with indissoluble links to the past and future unless you preserve this body, in whom, after a manner, is involved the history of the past and prophecy of the future. Believing this, I would welcome the fiercest civil war before a government of clubs and unions."

Trench entered holy orders in the year 1832. From that time until his translation to the See of Dublin in 1861, he floated prosperously along the stream of ecclesiastical preferment, and it was during these thirty years that the greater part of his theological works were written. He was, of course, strongly opposed to the act for the disestablishment of the English Church in Ireland, and it does credit to his political foresight that he discerned the far-reaching consequences of that policy a great deal more clearly than did Mr. Gladstone or any other of its supporters. The following prophetic extract from a charge of his delivered in 1868 is quoted in the "Memorials":

"When our establishment is denounced as a badge of conquest, what is this but the saying, in a way which is meant should irritate some portion of the Irish people, that the past has bequeathed its results to the present? But so it has done everywhere, and in ten thousand ways. In the historic life of nations there is no escaping the dominion of the past. If it be attempted to ignore its verdicts, to reverse its decisions, to undo what it has done, a far larger task will have to be taken in hand than merely the overthrow of our establishment. The possession by Protestant landlords of seven-eighths of the soil of Ireland—is not that a badge of conquest far more impressive, and with social and political results immeasurably more significant, than any which we can offer? Must that, also, close? Might not the whole present framework of things, the Vicerealty, nay, the Royalty itself, which is behind the Vicerealty, by the same right, or by a better, be termed badges of conquest; and, if all which keeps record of the great decisions of the past must needs be abolished, the removal of these on the same plea be demanded? When is a movement like this to stop? This much is certain, that, if once allowed, it will not stop exactly where those intend and desire who have set it agoing, any more than the rock which has been detached from the mountain-top will pause upon

its side exactly where he who impelled it may desire."

Failing to avert disestablishment, the Archbishop addressed himself with unflinching courage to the task of reconstructing the shattered Church after the blow had fallen. A more difficult and harassing task for a man of the Archbishop's temperament and convictions never devolved upon mortal man. He was a High Churchman, logically, if not explicitly, committed to the depressing tenet that outside of the Anglican Church there was small hope of the salvation of the devoutest Christian. To the Anglican Church belonged the Apostolical succession, on which depended the regenerating power of the sacrament of Baptism, and the real Presence in that of the Holy Communion. For the disestablished Church in Ireland to do aught in the process of reconstruction which might cut it off from communion with the Church in England, was tantamount, in the eyes of the Archbishop, to its destruction as a church, and its reduction to the level of a dissenting sect. The Irish laity, on the other hand, with whom he had to work, regarded the very things which the Archbishop held essential to the life of a church as survivals of Papacy, and drew, at least, this consolation from the fact of disestablishment: that now they could purge the Irish Church from all contamination by them. Further to aggravate the difficulties of the situation there were behind the Archbishop his High Church friends in England—Dr. Pusey, Canon Liddon, Wilberforce of Winchester— anxiously watching the strife, and shrieking out at intervals that the Irish Church would be no longer a church if this or that thing came to pass. Under these circumstances, Dr. Trench would seem to have acted with a rare combination of tact, firmness, and judgment, and he succeeded ultimately in bringing the Irish Church out of the fray considerably mutilated in the ecclesiastical sense, yet not so grossly defaced but that a High Churchman in England might confess itself still to recognize her as a poor relative.

In conclusion, we must express our strong disapproval of a miscellaneous correspondence of this kind being given to the public without either an adequate table of contents or anything answering to an index. Scattered through the letters, especially those from Mr. John Sterling, which are the pleasantest and most suggestive among them, there are many things one would like to recall, but, without an index, they are almost as irrecoverable as the proverbial needle in the bundle of hay.

*A Century of Ballads.* Collected, Edited, and Illustrated in Facsimile of the Originals, by John Ashton. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

*The English and Scottish Popular Ballads.* Edited by Francis James Child. Part V. Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

MR. ASHTON has been known for some years past as a professional book-maker, who has devoted himself in particular, though he has not confined himself, to the illustration of the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries. The first of the volumes under review is one of his latest productions. It consists of about eighty poems arranged under the nine various headings of Social, Supernatural, Historical, Love, Drinking, Sea, Naval and Military, Sporting, and Local and Miscellaneous Ballads. They all belong or seem to belong to the seventeenth century; for in most cases nothing is given to fix positively the date.

The work is got up in sumptuous style, and

the expense bestowed upon it is in striking contrast with the character of its contents. Looked at from a literary point of view, the poems contained in it are about as worthless as those of any collection that industrious dullness has ever succeeded in gathering together. It would perhaps be no more than justice to give it precedence over all similar collections that have been made. These ballads may, indeed, be supposed to have some value as illustrating the manners and feelings of the past, and this is the special claim to consideration which their compiler sets up for them. Still, even in this respect they will be found in most cases to be of as little importance as they are of interest. It needs no one to come from the dead to tell us that some parents have opposed the wishes of their children in the matter of marriage, that some husbands have been drunkards and brutes, that some wives have been shrews, and that, in fine, human nature has in former centuries exhibited itself in the same agreeable or disagreeable ways that it does in the nineteenth. The truth is, these ballads seem to have been selected almost entirely for the cuts with which they were headed. Upon the faithful reproduction of these in facsimile Mr. Ashton prides himself unreservedly. As works of art it is not necessary to discuss their merits. It is sufficient to say that while the volume appears to have been got up for their sake, it has not been so ostensibly; and it militates accordingly against the eternal fitness of things that literary matter so utterly wretched should be clothed in a guise so elegant.

The original matter which the editor has prefixed to the collection of ballads is marked by some novel and surprising information, and by criticism which is even more novel and surprising than the information. There is this to be said for it, that it contains one piece which surpasses in literary value anything and everything else to be found in the book. This is "The Nut-Brown Maid," which "pretty poem," as Mr. Ashton calls it, he gives in full, as it might not be familiar to some of his readers, and he is honestly of opinion that it "is worthy of a place in the literature of its century." This betokens a judicious attitude of mind. It is clear that enthusiasm of the sort which comes from the late discovery of what is known to every one else will never lead Mr. Ashton astray. His general criticism of this piece, and the information collected in his Introduction, tend to impress firmly upon us the conviction that in the course of his seventeenth-century investigations he is likely to alight upon a certain epic called "Paradise Lost," which he will be disposed to consider a pretty good thing—at least a pretty good thing for its time and of its kind. Only in case he undertakes to print his discovery, it is to be hoped that he will edit it with more care and knowledge than he has bestowed upon "The Nut-Brown Maid." The obvious errors of the original are here not once corrected, and the words he selects for explanation either require none or are explained wrongly when they do. Some of the blunders made are of the grossest sort. *The ton*, for instance, which is a common form for "the one," is gravely rendered by "the town," and the interjection *loo*, a variant form of "lo," is interpreted "loved." As the only poem worth reading in this quarto of three hundred and fifty pages, it is annoying to have it reproduced in this slipshod fashion.

It is always pleasant to pass from the work of the compiler to that of the scholar. In this instance the leap is one of the longest conceivable. In the fifth part of the collection of English and Scottish Ballads now under notice

we have a further outcome of the researches of the one man who, in the ballads of our tongue, is the greatest authority now living, and it is not too much to say the greatest authority that has ever lived. The progress of the work has been so often noticed in these columns that there is little opportunity left to speak in new terms of the finish and perfection with which everything connected with the subject has been treated, as well as of the exhaustive learning that has been brought to bear upon every particular poem that is printed. The part before us consists of forty-two ballads, almost all of which belong to the Robin Hood cycle. It is interesting to observe how in these the usual law of the development of the hero's reputation has been reversed; how, in the events recorded in the later pieces as contrasted with the earlier, the prowess of the famous outlaw steadily diminishes instead of increasing. The readers of "Ivanhoe" will note, too, several of the places from which Scott derived his incidents. Of a more wide-reaching interest is the introduction to the ballad of "Adam Bell, Clym of the Clough, and William of Cloudeley." It is a mine of information in regard to the widely diffused series of stories connected with the shooting at an apple, or some other object, in close proximity to a living person, of which the most famous exemplar is the legend of William Tell. But the whole volume, like those which have preceded it, is full of illustrative matter, in which the learning of the East and the West has been brought together so as to shed light upon the subject of which the particular ballad treats. It is gratifying to see this great work going on steadily to its completion, for it is preeminently one of the kind that will never have to be done a second time. In this instance the worth of the contents will admit of any extent of external decoration, and the beautiful form in which the publishers have produced the collection corresponds fitly to its internal value.

*The Photographic Negative*, written as a practical guide to the preparation of sensitive surfaces, etc. By the Rev. W. H. Burbank. Scovill Manufacturing Co. 1888.

THERE is a defect running through the literature of photography, with few exceptions (and these mainly books of scientific investigators who had something new to say, and, being in earnest, said it in the fewest words possible, or at least with no idle repetition), which we wish to press home on the minds of the professional writers on photography, for it is making their literature a nuisance. We mean the extravagant tendency to pad their books out to large dimensions by the insertion of matters already worn out by repetition, and often of no practical value—apparently because the really important matter is so little that, if the work were limited to it, the dimensions of the volume would be incommensurate with the ambition of the author. What is necessary to be said with regard to practical photography, and would be of real utility to the learner, could be said in a book of half the bulk of this, which is devoted to the production of the negative, and, after all, does not say one word on the most important point in reference to this particular subject. But the photographic author, being generally a tyro in letters, magnifies the importance of his office, and cannot satisfy his aspirations with a small book, such as would result from the exclusion of all matter not really of moment. He therefore goes over all the well-known ground of past experience, and loads his book with pages of information as profitable as the geography of Ptolemy.

The author of this book, for instance, goes through all the details of some twenty-odd negative processes, some of which never had any value, as, for instance, Canon Beechey's, Capt. Abney's, Sutton's, Vogel's, the Gum-gallic, and some others of doubtful utility, while the greater part by far have now only an historic interest, and not more than three of the whole have any practical existence for the photographer. The old wet collodion, the simple washed collodion emulsion, and the gelatine processes are all that any person can require for practical purposes; and even from the enormous number of modifications made by the crowd of experimenters in the three or four distinct processes, our author's selections have been rather at random than from any knowledge of their actual working qualities. Thus, of Canon Beechey's process, which was only a trivial modification of the collodio-bromide emulsion, he says that it possessed "technical qualities of about one-half the sensitiveness of wet plates," which is simply absurd; the best of the processes of this type never passing the fifth of the sensitiveness of wet plates. The principal fact remaining of Capt. Abney's processes (for he discovered several, none of which were of any worth) is that the adoption of one of them resulted in losing all the photographic results of one of the eclipse expeditions. The author recommends Vogel's combined emulsion process, not seeming to know that it was a nostrum, and easily exploded in practical working out, and certainly never having tried it, which must have been the case with regard to most of the processes he describes.

Under remarks on exposure, etc., the author says that "the time of exposure is inversely as the distance of the objects to be photographed. To this law is due the reproduction of the effect known as aerial perspective"! This passes human comprehension, and throws a very grave imputation on the author's elementary scientific education, to say the least. There is no such law to begin with, and "the effect known as aerial perspective" is due simply to the intervention of illuminated vapor between the observer and the distance. An object five miles away is photographed as quickly as one ten miles away; but when objects are brought within very close range of the lens the focus is lengthened, and then the exposure of the plates is prolonged according to another law, stated correctly by the author: "The time of the exposure varies directly as the focal lengths of the objectives (lenses)"; but there is no approach to the variation indicated in the other "law."

The historical part of the book is extremely incomplete as history and imperfect as description. The tannin process, as discovered and first put into practice by Major Russell, was a pure bromide process, and it was afterwards applied to iodo-bromide. The collodio-bromide emulsion was not in the least due to Gardin, though he had suggested something like it; and in the entire history no mention is made of the important practical discovery that an emulsion made with an excess of nitrate of silver possesses a degree of sensitiveness so much greater than that of the first emulsion of Sayce and Bolton, that it changed the character of all the work done with emulsions. The whole of this portion of the book is cursory, and evidently only wanted to swell out the volume.

With regard to the really important subject of the so-called orthochromatic film-plates, the author really gives no original information, nor does he approach the subject in a way to enable the reader to benefit by his experience, if he have any—which seems to



be a matter of question. The whole subject of equalizing the values of colors as rendered by photography is still a very obscure one, and there is grave doubt if there is any chemical effect in the action of the dyes used; that the color of the dye has any connection with increased sensitiveness to the relative color, is clearly not the case. This will be made evident by exposing a picture in which the colors require compensation to the yellow sunset light to be photographed, when the same effect will be found as is caused by the tint on the film, which again must be aided by a yellow screen in front of the lens—an additional indication that the effect produced is optical and not chemical. We remember twenty-five years ago that a photographer in Rome introduced the practice of photographing the old masters with the colored glass in front of his lens. When the subject comes to be thoroughly investigated by scientific method, it will probably be found that the orthochromatic effect is due to certain relations between exposure and development, as is said to be the opinion of Angerer of Vienna, one of the most successful of the picture photographers, the dye added to the film having simply the effect of unequally prolonging the exposure necessary. The orthochromatic plate fails on the spectrum.

But one subject on which the author might have given a much-needed light is that of the character of the negative required for special process-work, the manner of getting the best results for the one or the other of the numerous processes now in use—on all which he says nothing. Yet this is one of the most important elements in the business and one of the least understood, and on which, therefore, new and luminous instructions are needed.

*Martin Van Buren.* By Edward M. Shepard. [American Statesmen.] Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1888.

WHATEVER judgment may be passed upon Van Buren by the readers of this book, they can certainly have but one opinion concerning the author: he has produced a masterpiece. We are at a loss whether to admire more the form or the substance of his work. Not many of our professed men of letters surpass him in mere literary skill—in facility of expression and in the art of setting forth facts in an interesting way. Very few of our historians equal him in the power of characterizing a political era, or in the breadth of the view which he takes of our political development. The problem of explaining the relations of the cliques that struggled for the control of the government of the State of New York is especially difficult, nor is it, in our judgment, an attractive one, but Mr. Shepard's familiarity with these details enables the reader to follow him with intelligence and with pleasure.

It must be said that the personality which furnishes the title to this book is not a striking one. Martin Van Buren was unquestionably a man of polished manners ("a perfect imitation of a gentleman," Baccourt called him) and decorous life. His legal attainments were considerable, and his statesmanship was dignified. But he had none of the strongly marked features that withstand the effacing influences of time. Perhaps it would be impossible to paint his portrait otherwise than in faint colors, and, in fact, Mr. Shepard scarcely attempts to inform us as to his private life or as to his personal relations. He presents him almost exclusively as a "statesman," and we think that his judgment is sound in this, not only because of the title of the series, but also because of the limitations of the individual. With this end in view he begins naturally with an account of the political theories and tendencies prevalent at the opening of Van Buren's career, and then passes to the great questions with which he was called to deal—the relations of the Government to the banks and to slavery.

To a considerable extent Mr. Shepard finds himself committed to a vindication. Van Buren had been trained among the fierce factional contests of New York politics, and had been taught neither to give nor to ask quarter. It would have been strange had he repudiated the maxim, *Vix ceditis*; and yet, as Mr. Shepard shows, he was more merciful than most of his contemporaries. Mr. Shepard is so ardent a civil-service reformer that he seems to us to be needlessly concerned about Van Buren's reputation on this point. The spirit of the Federalists was so contrary to that of democracy, and the bitterness of party feeling at that day was so intense, that it is at least doubtful if it was not necessary that all Federalists should be hunted out of office. In such a seething political cauldron, most office-holders were, it is safe to say, "offensive partisans," and, as was the case in 1861, the people would not tolerate the retention in office of men who held views that were looked upon as little less than treasonable. Under Lincoln, it must be remembered, the changes were far more sweeping than ever before.

As to the charges of insincerity and double-dealing commonly made against Van Buren, Mr. Shepard wholly rejects them, and rejects them after having examined the evidence. He entered upon the investigation supposing the charges to be true, and found that they could not be supported. We may say that he has at least shifted the burden of proof. His plea is an extremely able one, and we will only urge against it the rather remarkable unanimity of contemporary opinion. It must be said, too, that the reader is not altogether free from the feeling that Mr. Shepard holds a brief, and that his attitude is not absolutely judicial. We do not object to this, for Van Buren is certainly entitled to the benefit of counsel, but we think that the judgment of his contemporaries is a circumstance that requires a little more consideration than Mr. Shepard gives it.

Upon some points, however, Mr. Shepard's argument is certainly triumphant. This man accused of insincerity and duplicity actually distinguished himself upon two occasions by devotion to principle. On both occasions his course was unpopular, and he knew that it would be probably fatal to his political future, but he did not flinch from the sacrifice. The first of these occasions was when, after the panic of 1837, he insisted upon financial conservatism and sobriety on the part of the Government, against a howling mob of ruined jobbers and speculators. It cost him his reelection in 1840. The second was when he declared that slave territory should not be enlarged by the annexation of Texas. This cost him his re-nomination in 1844.

As to Van Buren's rank among our Presidents, Mr. Shepard justly declares that he does not belong among the mediocrities or accidents of the White House—among Monroe, Harrison, Tyler, Polk, Taylor, Fillmore, and Pierce. Nor is he upon the same plane as Jackson and the elder Adams. We are inclined to add that he is likely to stand much higher in the judgment of posterity than he would have had it not been for Mr. Shepard's book. Viewed as a rhetorical achievement alone, this essay is admirable; and it certainly casts a strong and not unpleasant light upon a rather dark period in our political history.

*An Introduction to the Study of the Middle Ages 337-814.* By Ephraim Emerton, Ph.D., Professor of History in Harvard University. Boston: Ginn & Co. 1888. 8vo, pp. 388.

THE four hundred and fifty years or so between Constantine and Charlemagne form one of the most interesting and important as well as one of the most perplexing periods of history. It was the period of the transition from the ancient to the modern world, marked by three independent phases of transformation, any one of them vital enough to make an epoch in the history of humanity: the Christianization of Europe, the breaking up of the Roman Empire into new monarchies of German nationality, and a complete revolution in government and institutions. With the last of these, with the final establishment of feudalism, we have the Middle Ages proper. The merging of nationalities and the substitution of the Christian for the pagan ideal of life were slow and obscure processes, but the aspect of the period, at once the most difficult and the least understood, is in regard to the growth of feudal institutions. We have not until now possessed any book which would serve as a guide to this period from this three-fold point of view. There are historical treatises in abundance, ranging in fulness from Gibbon's great work to Mr. Cartier's excellent compendium, but no book specifically designed to meet the wants of the student. It is Mr. Emerton's great merit that he has carefully defined his field of labor, limiting himself to just these centuries, and for the most part to just the three points of view which we have indicated: the way in which the German nationality took possession of the Empire, the way in which the Christian Church took possession of society, and the way in which a new type of government was evolved, to meet the needs of a new type of society. This last subject necessarily carries him a little beyond the limits which he had set for himself. Feudalism came after Charlemagne, but could not be neglected; we have therefore a chapter following those upon Charlemagne, upon "The Beginnings of the Feudal System."

The book is distinctively a guide to students, not a final and complete account of its subject, although as a *history* it has high merit and a certain completeness within its limits. The introduction is entitled "Suggestions to Teachers" and is followed by a list of books of a general character. Each chapter, moreover, begins with a well-selected list of books, containing, wherever necessary, a judicious appreciation of the works cited, whether as authorities or as modern works. For the modern literature we will say that it might have been well to make these discriminating remarks more general and detailed. A chronological table and an index complete the volume.

The part of the work which is most new, or which at all events contains most matter that is not generally accessible, is those chapters which treat of the period of the Frank Empire, chapters vii to xiv; especially, we think, that upon Germanic Ideas of Law, and the two historical chapters which treat of Charles Martel and Pepin. The two chapters upon Charlemagne contain an admirable and lucid account of the work of this great man, while that upon Feudalism is, we have no doubt, the best and clearest analysis of that institution to be found in the English language. The maps deserve special mention, as being about the first historical maps of Europe produced in this country of genuine and original merit. They are not copied from other works, but are specially designed to illustrate this book. The first is the Rhine-Danube Frontier before "The Great Mi-

grations"; here we should suppose that the Vandals ought to have been placed further west, on the other side of the Danube. The second is "Lines of March of the German Tribes." It seems to us misleading to commence the Ostrogoth line of march in Pannonia, as if this were their original seat. The successive points of the several migrations are indicated by dates; we would suggest that the date of the Burgundian settlement at Worms should be added. The map of "The Germans in the Empire" (for A. D. 500—by the way, dates ought to be affixed to the maps) contains useful dates on the face of the map for the settlement and occupation of the several countries. The maps of the "Frankish Kingdom under the Merovingians" and "under the Carolingians" will be very acceptable to students, as containing really accurate and intelligible boundary lines, as well as all the detail which they need. The last map, "Church Centres in Europe in the time of Charlemagne," contains material which we believe is not elsewhere accessible in English.

*Life on the Congo.* By the Rev. W. Holman Bentley. London: Religious Tract Society. Illustrated. Pp. 126, 8vo.

MR. BENTLEY is of the Baptist Mission. His book is not descriptive, but relates mainly to the habits, customs, and beliefs of the natives. He appears to be a careful observer and has collected many interesting facts. Incidentally he writes more favorably of the climate than most travellers to this region, having been on the Congo two years and a half before he was attacked by fever. He also relates an interesting conversation with one of the negroes from the upper river in regard to the repeated attacks upon Stanley during his first expedition on its waters. These were due, according to this man, not to hostility, but simply to emulation. Each tribe heard that the tribes above had fought with the strangers, and accordingly they did the same. Of the native language, one of the many forms of the Bantu, he says, "The most marked feature is the euphonic concord, a principle by which the characteristic prefix of the noun is attached to the pronouns and adjectives qualifying it, and to the verb of which it is the subject. Thus, *matadi mama mampwena mampembe maitanga beni*; these great white stones are very heavy." He quotes with approval the statement made in Mr. R. N. Cust's work on the African languages, that "its grammatical principles are founded on the most systematic and philosophical basis, and the number of words may be multiplied to an almost indefinite extent." His experience also confirms the truth of Mr. Stanley's assertion that the Congo native is a born trader. He says, "A five-year-old boy will somehow get three or four strings of beads, and with them will buy a small chicken. After a few months of patient care, it is worth eight or ten strings, and his capital is doubled." He is soon able to buy a small pig, and with the proceeds of this, of rat hunting and barter with other boys, he at last gets capital enough to make a trading trip to the coast. All this time he lives, apart from his parents, in a house with the other boys of the village. "The right of inheritance is from uncle to nephew; thus a man's slaves and real property go to the eldest son of his eldest sister, or the next of kin on such lines." A man's children, on the other hand, are the property of his wife's relatives, and he has "little or no control over them."

The Congo week consists of four days, the markets, which are apparently their measure

of time, being held every fourth or eighth day. The laws of the market are stringent. "No one is allowed to come armed, no one may catch a debtor on market day, no one may use a knife against another in a passion. The penalty for all these offences is death, and many muzzles of buried guns stick up in the market places to warn other rowdies against a like fate." The natives have no religion, unless the simple belief in a Supreme Being, whom they neither fear nor worship, can be so regarded. They have great faith in the power of charms (to which, however, they do not attribute any personality, and so do not worship them, as some travellers have asserted) as well as in witchcraft, which enters into every relation of life, and is the fruitful source of numerous murders. The author describes two curious customs prevailing among them, Ndembo and Nkimba. In the former, young people, chiefly, are attacked by hysteria, and are carried away to an enclosed place outside of the village. Though supposed to be dead, they are supplied with food by their parents or friends, and after a time, varying from three months to three years, on the payment of certain doctor's fees, they are brought to life again. Returning to their homes, they pretend entire ignorance of everything which they have previously known, even to the mastication of food, which is done for them. The other is a species of freemason society established for mutual help and protection, having an initiation ceremonial and a mysterious language. This the novice learns during a seclusion of from six months to two years, required for this purpose. Mr. Bentley says that this language has evidently been made, but upon what principles he is still unable to discover, although he has collected two hundred words and forty sentences. "The vocabulary is limited, and is characterized by the system of alliterial concord." This society is spreading among the natives on the south bank of the Congo, and has been in some ways useful to the missionaries.

*Elementary Treatise on Analytical Mechanics.*

By William G. Peck, Ph.D., LL.D., Professor of Mathematics, Mechanics, and Astronomy in Columbia College. A. S. Barnes & Co.

ABOUT thirty years ago Prof. Peck published a treatise on the "Elements of Mechanics for the use of Colleges, Academies, and High Schools." The elementary text-books then in use were too simple for advanced students, and, from their non-mathematical character, furnished a very inadequate basis for future study and investigation on the part of the student himself. The more thorough and complete treatises were too difficult for beginners, and too extensive for use as text-books. There was too wide a gap between the elementary and the complete treatises, which Prof. Peck's book was intended to fill. It was in many respects an admirable work, but it was not quite adapted to the educational conditions then existing in this country. It was in advance of the times. The processes of the differential and integral calculus were frequently introduced, and at that time the number of students who had studied the calculus was very small, and of these a still smaller proportion were able to make any intelligent use of its methods. In nearly if not quite all our colleges the calculus was an "optional" study, and the choice almost invariably fell on anything rather than the calculus. The result was that in our academies and high schools, although the teachers were to a large extent college graduates, the calculus was a branch of mathematics unknown and untaught. Accordingly, a year

after its publication, Prof. Peck added to his book an appendix, in which the more important principles of mechanics were demonstrated by the processes employed in those branches of mathematics usually studied, and those portions of the work which might be omitted "without impairing the unity of the subject" were pointed out. This, however, did not prove entirely satisfactory. Teachers did not like to use, and pupils did not care to buy, a text-book a considerable portion of which was unintelligible and useless. It was evident that not only students in high schools and academies, but also those in technical schools and undergraduates in colleges, required a text-book constructed on a lower mathematical level. To meet this demand, Prof. Peck published in 1870 a substantially new work. The general plan of the book was the same as that of the former, but it was entirely rewritten, and analytical geometry was the upper limit of the mathematical knowledge assumed to be possessed by those making use of the work. Less than this it was impossible to assume without abandoning the attempt to treat mathematically any but the simplest problems of the science. But even for this the times were not yet ripe.

Over seventeen years have elapsed between the date of the preface of the work last mentioned and that of the one which now claims our attention. During that period the progress of the United States has been in no direction more marked than in the great increase in the number of students of the higher branches of science, including mathematics. Though analytical geometry and the calculus are still optional studies in most institutions, yet there are probably ten persons now who make them serious objects of study where there was one when Prof. Peck's treatise was first published. He has again entirely rewritten it. It is no larger than at first. It is still an elementary treatise in so far as it deals with the elementary conceptions which lie at the foundation of the science, but it is not a "popular" exposition of those conceptions. It is a thoroughly scientific work, and intended for those who wish to study, not merely to read about, mechanics. As the word "Analytical" introduced in the title indicates, the book is written from a mathematical standpoint. The methods of the differential and integral calculus are freely applied. The only concession to any want of knowledge or of memory on the part of the pupil is an occasional reference to a paragraph of the author's treatise on that subject. The work contains no historical information, discusses no philosophical questions, indulges in no metaphysical speculation. A large part of it might with very little change be moulded exactly into the form of Euclid's elements.

A thoroughly competent teacher, with a class of pupils who have sufficient knowledge of analytical geometry and the calculus to understand the meaning of the formulas and their transformations, has here an admirable text-book. The publishers have done their duty in the mechanical execution of the volume, and it is in that respect a great improvement on the two previous works.

*Social Life and Literature Fifty Years Ago.* Boston: Cupples & Hurd. 1888.

THIS little volume is an old man's word for his own times; and it must be acknowledged, even by the flippant criticism of the new age, that the retort is not without a certain grave force. It is not the change of literary fashion which has annoyed this gentleman of the old school, but the attack upon his own tastes and the vio-



lence done to great reputations. The process of pushing the fathers from their stools seems to him to be going on with indecent haste, with superciliousness in some quarters, and with a temper, in others, as unjust as it is patronizing. Doubtless when Mr. Lathrop spoke of Irving's style as "patent-leather Addisonian," and of his humor as smacking of college-boy's wit, he did not realize that Irving has not been dead so long to others as he seems to him; and this very just reproach from a contemporary who remembers Irving's fame at its height, and can quote Scott and Dickens against the young critic's opinion, may be as surprising to him as a voice from the tombs. Mr. James, too, may be startled; for it is a voice from old Salem, in true earnest, and the speaker has much cause for complaint against the international novelist who has used Salem as the very type and symbol of the narrowness and lack of resource which belonged to New England fifty years ago as Mr. James sees it. But not only has Mr. Lathrop written flippantly of Irving, and Mr. James satirically of old Salem; others have spoken of Hillard and of Ticknor in a way that shows only too plainly how far the world has left those honorable men behind, and every literary circle knows what scant courtesy and how short a shrift the immortal shades of Thackeray, Dickens, and Scott have lately received.

It is this general spirit of depreciation, together with a certain forgetfulness, that has called out this protest in behalf of antiquity—that is, of Irving, Scott, Dickens, and Thackeray, Ticknor, and that society which produced the coterie of the "Five of Clubs," to wit, Longfellow, Sumner, Felton, Hillard, and Cleveland. We are reminded that these scholars and gentlemen lived a long time ago—before "Pinafore" and Sullivan, the prince of pugilists, before athletics in colleges, newspaper interviewing, salvation armies, spiritualism, faith cures, Christian science, Canadian refugees, and stock gambling; but they made friends with the good opinion of their day, were respected by the best minds, and made their age remembered in literature, if it shall be remembered at all. They stood, in a word, for the culture of their times, and our friendly octogenarian who reminds us of all this, will have it that their culture was really respectable, and their achievement quite the equal of anything his latter days have seen. He seems disposed to class the literary spirit of to-day

with that melancholy list of innovations beginning with "Pinafore" and ending with stock gambling. We indulge the hope that matters have not gone to such an extreme, though times have changed as times will. Meanwhile, in the crush of popular reputations made and lost as rapidly as fortunes in Wall Street, this sharp and well-deserved reminder of what stature men had in Nestor's day will be appreciated by a long-suffering but silent public, who, library statistics tell us, persist in reading the old books; and possibly the critics might do well to give it a bit of attention themselves.

*The Structure and Classification of the Mesozoic Mammalia.* By Henry Fairfield Osborn. Philadelphia: Academy of Natural Sciences, 1888. 4to. Illustrated.

THE Mesozoic are the earliest known mammals; ordinarily the class is said to have begun with them. Their sizes ranged from that of a small mouse to that of a large house rat. The determinations have been based on teeth and jaws; little else of the skeleton has been unearthed. Five of the genera are Triassic; about thirty are Jurassic. The variety of types among them, and their degree of comparative advancement, prove them to be descendants of lines of mammalian ancestors reaching still further back. In other words, there were mammals much earlier than any of the primitive insectivores and marsupials yet brought to light. Dr. Buckland, in his paper on Megalosaurus (1825), mentions the jaw of a small mammal from the Stonesfield slates of the Oolite, which, on the authority of Cuvier, he refers to Didelphys, the Opossum; this was their first notice. Afterwards they were reported from different parts of the Old World. In 1871 Prof. Owen brought together what was known at the time in his *Monograph of the Fossil Mammalia of the Mesozoic Formations*. An American genus, *Dromotherium*, from the Triassic of North Carolina, had been made known by Prof. Emmons in 1857. Prof. Marsh obtained others from the Jurassic of Wyoming in 1878, and since then has considerably increased the list, adding six new genera and nine new species in his most important contribution, "American Jurassic Mammals" (1887). Besides those mentioned, others have made discoveries in widely separated localities.

Like that of Owen, the work of Prof. Osborn

is an attempt at an exhaustive study of all relating to Mesozoic mammals that has been brought forward up to the date of publication. In it he aims, so far as may be done from teeth and jaws, (1) to present the features of the genera; (2) to present the principles of classification, and (3) to discuss the affinities, origins, and succession. What relates to the features is mainly compilation, the author having no material not previously worked over. All of the genera are described and figured. The principles of classification do not differ materially from those adopted by predecessors. It is in the discussion that we find most of what the author can claim as original. In this and in that it greatly facilitates the study of these fossils, less the importance of the work. The few lines that have been touched upon have yielded just enough to prove that we have hardly more than begun upon an extensive group of well-differentiated genera, many of which present conclusions as to possible lines of succession of still greater importance, but which are not yet definitely known.

#### BOOKS OF THE WEEK

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